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TIMELY CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE HISTORY OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

Observers of the educational scene have recently noted the rerudescence in certain quarters of opposition to the free public high school. This opposition finds expression in efforts to bring about the curtailment of the provisions for education at this level and even in attempts to bring school boards to abandon the principle of a free secondary education by charging tuition for attendance on the public high school. This revival of opposition to the public high school is the more disconcerting because most of us had come to believe that the battle for a free secondary education had been fought and won for good during the last century. The conviction has been widespread not only that the fight for legal approval of public high schools had been won before the civil courts of the individual states, but—what is of far greater moment—that the principle of free secondary education had won practically unanimous public approval.

We are grateful to be able to begin publication this month of a group of articles dealing with this battle for the free high school, articles which are the outcome of careful and discerning researches by Miss B. Jeannette Burrell and Professor R. H. Eckelberry. The article in this issue reports on the struggle before the courts and

tends somewhat to minimize the importance of the famous Kalama-zoo Case by showing that formal opposition to the public high school through legal action was rather widespread. This article will be followed by three others of a different type. The first will deal with "Times, Places, and Participants" in the high-school controversy. Names of a number of eminent persons appear among the participants on both sides of the question. It will astonish many readers to learn that one of the vigorous opponents of the public high school was Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University, whose judgment on the educational questions of his day, at fault in this instance, was usually sound. The last two articles in the whole group will present the political, social, moral, religious, economic, and educational arguments that were presented on both sides of the controversy during the seventies and the eighties of the last century, the period when the public high school was eclipsing the private high school both in numbers of institutions and in enrolment.

It goes without saying that perusal of this record of the struggle for the free high school at a time when the opposition is once more showing its head should give courage to the friends of education and place in their hands some of the weapons for a new defense. The reader will be convinced that many of the older arguments on behalf of a free secondary education are even more applicable today than they were when first put forward a half-century or more ago. Our political, social, and economic life has grown vastly more complex than it was in the seventies and the eighties, and more education is required to cope with the problems of the present period. Besides, a powerful new argument has in the meantime emerged to reinforce the older contentions. We refer to the argument resulting from the technological development that has been increasingly forcing young people out of employment. The alternative of a longer period of free public education is the disorganization of youth, with consequent hazard to our society.

We need not guess what would follow any serious curtailment of present provisions for public secondary education or the imposition of a tuition charge on those who attend high schools. We can predict for a certainty that enrolments would at once drop off. In the Bay View High School in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, pupils were recent-

ly asked whether they would be able to continue in school if a tuition fee in the amount charged to non-residents were imposed. Seventy per cent reported that they would be forced to drop out of school. In a number of local communities of the country, boards of education recently imposed tuition charges for attendance on public junior colleges or increased the rates of tuition already in force. In well-nigh all these communities enrolment in the junior colleges promptly fell off.

This shrinkage of enrolments is, of course, exactly what the enemies of public secondary education want. Smaller enrolments mean reduced outlays for public education, and these in turn mean lower taxes for schools. The most vigorous opponents of the public high school are from among the most well-to-do, who can send their children to expensive private schools and who have no interest in the education of the masses and no appreciation of the significance of public education in American democracy.

Although illustration of the source of present opposition is hardly called for in announcing publication of a group of articles on the history of the high-school controversy, neither is it entirely out of place. Our example is drawn from an address delivered before the Southern California Social Science Association by Herbert C. Jones, of San Jose, member of the state senate and throughout his public career a courageous and intelligent friend of public education. We quote the portions of the address in which Senator Jones identifies the opponents of public education in his state and presents a dramatic contrast of remuneration for service in the public utilities and in public education. The quotations are made from the January *Sierra Educational News*, the official journal of the California Teachers Association.

This program [of tax reduction affecting many public activities] . . . singled out our public-school system for the most determined attack. It aimed to take the control of school budgets from boards of education and turn it over to non-educational, political groups such as boards of supervisors. It proposed to close up whole departments of our schools or put them on the fee basis, charging heavy tuition, first in teachers' colleges, then in the junior colleges, and finally in high schools. What then becomes of our free public school system? It was proposed to cut down state support for our schools and throw the burden back on to local districts, many of which are too poor to maintain any schools. It was

proposed to put our night schools on the fee basis—these schools which furnish the last solace and aid to our unemployed in their aim to better their conditions and improve their minds.

This drive against public education was nation wide. It was definitely and completely put over in seventeen states. In California this drive was powerful enough to put its program over completely in the state senate. Fortunately for the public schools of California it was stopped in the assembly.

What organization engineered this drive and led this attack?

The program was planned by the California Taxpayers Association. They used the State Chamber of Commerce as a shield. Investigations and the preparation of the reports and bills that furnished the basis of the attack came from the California Taxpayers Association. The California Taxpayers Association is an organization made up primarily of the great public utilities of California. It is largely financed by these utilities. Its dominating directors are prominent utility officials.

The California Taxpayers Association and these utilities make a plea for economy in expenses of government and in administration of schools. Now, no one knows better than school authorities the need of economy, and they are making reductions both in salaries and in maintenance expenses from one end of the state to the other. . . .

Let us see, however, what examples of economy these utilities set in the administration of the service for which we pay them. One of these utility officials, who is also a director of the California Taxpayers Association, draws a salary of \$100,000 a year. Another draws a salary of \$75,000 a year. These figures are disclosed by the records of the State Railroad Commission. These records reveal also that in addition to these salaries these officials are allowed extensive expense accounts. The sum total of salaries of public-utility officials who receive \$5,000 a year and over in the state of California amounts to \$8,601,690.49 a year.

Yet the man who has the responsibility of the administration of the vast system of public schools of California receives a salary of \$5,000 a year. He is our state superintendent of schools. He supervises an establishment of over 1,000,000 pupils, of 40,000 teachers, and 3,600 districts, involving an annual expenditure, even after the 17 per cent reduction of last year, of over \$120,000,000. Unlike the high-priced utility executives, he has no "management company" to run his enterprise for him.

The state superintendent of schools must labor twenty years to earn the salary of the \$100,000-a-year corporation official for one year. While the superintendent is earning that corporation official's salary for one year, the salary of the corporation official amounts to \$2,000,000.

ON THE ADJUSTMENT OF TEACHER SUPPLY AND DEMAND

For each year since 1930 R. H. Eliassen and Earl W. Anderson have presented in the *Educational Research Bulletin*, published at the

Ohio State University, a summary of investigations of teacher supply and demand. These summaries have helped to keep interested persons in touch with both trends and thought in an important field during a critical and uncertain period. Among the features of the summary for 1933 published in the *Bulletin* of January 17, 1934, is a list of recommendations for ways out of the present situation of teacher surplus. We reproduce the list, indicating in parentheses the number of bibliographical items in which each proposal was found.

- Raising certification requirements (6)
- More careful pretraining selection of teachers (4)
- Continuous studies of the teacher situation (3)
- Longer periods of teacher training (3)
- Contraction of teacher production (3)
- Co-ordination of agencies training and certifying teachers (3)
- The elimination of multiple jobs (2)
- Internships for unemployed teachers (1)
- Retirement of old teachers eligible for retirement (1)
- Removal of tenure protection from incompetent teachers (1)
- A state salary schedule to eliminate the economic advantage gained by local school boards in employing inadequately trained teachers (1)
- More careful placement of teachers in fields for which they are prepared (1)

Most of the recommendations are well worth pondering. The proper solution of the problem must take recourse to a combination of several procedures and cannot rely on one or two only.

THE POTENTIALITIES OF ADULT EDUCATION FOR THE SCHOOL

The spectacular development of programs of adult education under the Federal Emergency Relief Administration has called forth from the press, the pulpit, and other agencies of public discussion much in the way of commendation and comment. Usually the discussion centers in the beneficial effects on the adults themselves. It is much less often that the potentialities of these programs for the school are considered. A statement emphasizing the advantages that can be made to accrue to the school as an institution appeared in the January number of the *University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin* in an editorial entitled "Adults Troop to School," by Professor Clifford Woody. Its good sense impels and its brevity permits us to reproduce the editorial in full.

The response of the public to opportunities for adult education offered through the FERA program of the national government has been beyond all expectation. Unofficial reports from the various centers in which such education is provided show a good enrolment in a great variety of classes. The receptive attitude of the public is surely another testimonial to America's passion for education.

The establishment of these adult classes serves many worthy purposes, among which are the provision of worth-while work for a large number of otherwise unemployed teachers and the building of improved morale among masses of people suffering the travail and vicissitudes of the times and needing the energizing tonic of an ideal like that of self-improvement. If this program accomplishes nothing more than these two objectives, it will have great social value and will be eminently worth while.

The school as a social institution should profit greatly from this venture in the education of the adults in the various communities. The mere fact that such large numbers of citizens are attending the classes bespeaks a greater future interest in the program of public education. The existence of these classes fosters closer relationships between the school and the community. The fact that so many of the adults feel the need for further education will no doubt be reflected in their desires to have the public schools offer more adequate programs of instruction than were offered them. Furthermore, the nature of the courses elected by these adults when given the opportunity of free election should suggest to those responsible for curriculum construction in our public schools the educational values which these adults consider important. The large enrolment of these adult citizens in courses in government, economics, literature and philosophy of social changes, sociology, beginning French and German, fine arts, industrial arts, home economics, sewing, cooking, child study, preschool education, vocal music, instrumental music, chorus, practical nursing, religious training, character education, and physical education—with practically no demand for the more formal academic subjects usually taught in elementary and secondary schools and colleges—surely gives evidence of the types of education needed by these adults in making more satisfactory adjustments to the conditions of modern life. It is singularly significant, after the hue and cry about "fads and frills" in education, that, when the adults started trooping to school and were given a free choice as to what they might study, they elected these very same "fads and frills." Practical school men may certainly judge from this action that efforts to replace the narrow academic curriculum—the so-called curriculum of fundamentals—by a broad and enriched curriculum with emphasis on instruction in health, citizenship, vocation, leisure, and character are amply justified.

The presence of so many adults in classes attempting to understand modern political, social, and economic phases of our modern life forecasts a greater tolerance on the part of the public toward the discussion and study of such problems in the public schools themselves. Much of the instruction in the social fields as given at present lacks vitality and thoroughness because of the intolerance of the

communities in which such instruction is attempted. However, with great numbers of adults reading, studying, and discussing these same questions, prejudices will be broken down, open-mindedness developed, and free discussion welcomed. Adults studying, investigating, and discussing these problems will allow their children the same privilege. Such conditions will offer the school a greater opportunity for becoming a more active agency in the building of an improved social order.

Educators should welcome the appearance of this army of adults in classes for the contribution it can make to the program of public education. In order that this contribution may be of greatest worth, those responsible for directing the education of the adults should take immediate steps for intensive study of each adult. They should gather such information as the amount and type of previous education, previous occupational history and present vocational desires, present health status, reasons for electing given courses, and opinions concerning changes which should be made in the program of studies in the public schools. Instructors during the period of teaching should record observations concerning special interests and capacities for learning, difficulties encountered, and the effectiveness of different methods of teaching. If the sponsors of this movement capitalize on the opportunities within their grasp, the presence of these adults at school will prove a real boon to the cause of education.

SCHOOL AIDS TO GUIDANCE

The development of programs of guidance in secondary schools goes on apace. A reflection of this growth is seen in publications emanating from the schools which are intended to foster better service in guidance. Among publications of the schools that have lately come to the editor are those from two local sources, namely, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma, and Muskegon, Michigan.

From Oklahoma City three brochures have been submitted. One of these, an illustrated booklet of twenty-four pages, is entitled *Entering Junior High School* and is intended for elementary-school pupils. It contains simple information on such subjects as admission requirements, pupil activities, pupil government, the course of study, library, lockers, boundaries of the junior high school districts, home-room advisers, and where and when to study. The second, *Entering Senior High School*, is, correspondingly, intended for junior high school pupils. This booklet is differently organized, being made up largely of questions that are likely to recur to prospective senior high school pupils and answers to these questions. Illustrative of the questions are the following: "To which high school [of three in the

system] shall I go?" "What shall I take in senior high school?" "How shall I choose my high-school course?" "What are the required subjects for the tenth grade?" This particular booklet is accompanied by a folder setting forth the senior high school program of studies. The third brochure is called *What Shall I Be? A Butcher? A Baker? A Candlestick Maker?* It is a bulletin of the Department of Industrial Arts Education concerning courses in radio, printing, aviation, electricity, machine-shop, cabinet-making, automobile mechanics, and mechanical drawing. The publications have been prepared under the auspices of a committee on guidance, of which E. R. Sifert, principal of Central High School, is chairman.

The publication from Muskegon, in contrast with those from Oklahoma City, is a mimeographed outline of a three-year guidance program which is in use in the Central Junior High School, Muskegon. The program has been developed by R. T. Guyer, principal, and G. M. Harris, counselor. The content of the bulletin includes, among other materials, the objectives of guidance, the outline of instructional guidance (carried on in connection with the work in English in all three grades), the plan of guidance in the home room, an outline for the study of a vocation, rules for study, forms for self-analysis and counselors' records, and a bibliography of guidance. One gains the impression that the purpose of the publication has been to furnish an exposition of the program and to aid teachers in understanding the program and co-operating in it.

DOES VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN AGRICULTURE PAY?

A recent bulletin of the Federal Board for Vocational Education (the functions of which were transferred late in 1933 to the United States Office of Education) bears the caption *The Earning Ability of Farmers Who Have Received Vocational Training* (Bulletin Number 167, Agricultural Series Number 43). The pamphlet reports what appears to be a careful investigation of the monetary value of high-school vocational agriculture. The study was made in Virginia by Walter S. Newman, the supervisor of agricultural education for that state. In the language of the investigator, the purpose of the study was "to ascertain to what extent vocational training in agriculture has influenced the earnings of farmers who pursued this type of train-

ing while in high school and are now established in farming in Virginia."

The essence of the plan of investigation was to compare the earnings of two groups of farmers, the members of one group, designated "vocational," having had vocational training in agriculture in high school and the members of the other group, "non-vocational," not having had such training. In the selection of the individual farmers represented the effort was made to have the groups closely comparable in all significant respects excepting the vocational training. The various respects in which the groups were kept comparable are listed in the quoted matter below. In brief, individuals in both groups must have left high school prior to or during 1926, must have satisfactorily completed at least two years of high-school work, must have been farming in 1926 and have farmed continuously as renters or owners up to the time and at the time of the inquiry, and must not have attended college since leaving high school. When comparable vocational and non-vocational farmers could not be found in communities offering vocational agriculture, non-vocational farmers were chosen from "similar" communities without instruction in vocational agriculture. (Herein lies the chief risk to comparability and, therefore, to the study: if the communities are not really similar, the farmers in them, or rather their farms, might not have been comparable to those in communities with vocational courses.) In order that the reliability of the information might be increased, records for each farmer were secured over a two-year period. The types of farming represented were general, tobacco, peanut, dairy, and truck farming. A total of 153 farmers were represented in the comparisons, 101 vocational and 52 non-vocational. Statistical comparisons are made by dividing the whole groups into equivalent and comparable subgroups.

The findings and the general conclusions of the investigation follow.

FINDINGS

A group of vocationally trained farmers has been compared as to labor income with a group of farmers who did not pursue vocational training in agriculture. The two groups compare closely with one another upon the following factors, which have been selected as the most important of those which contribute to successful farming: (1) location in farming areas, (2) types of farming, (3)

race and nationality, (4) health and physical condition, (5) age, (6) years completed in high school, (7) average grade on all high-school subjects, (8) years of farming experience since leaving high school, (9) size of farm, (10) acres cultivated, (11) status as farmer (owner or renter), (12) average total capital invested.

In order to insure reliability in the labor-income records, particular care was exercised in selecting and training the interviewers.

The following summarizations are justified:

Vocationally-trained farmers realized greater average labor incomes than non-vocationally trained farmers for each type of farming. This was true not only when the income was computed on the basis of the usual interest rate of 5 per cent but also when an interest charge equal to the actual earnings of the capital invested in farming was used. This was also true when labor incomes were weighted for differences in sampling in each type of farming.

The difference in weighted average labor incomes of all individuals of \$311 in favor of the vocationally trained group is a comparatively large difference considering the abnormal farming conditions existing during the years 1930 and 1931. The average labor income of the vocationally trained group was 163 per cent of the average labor income of the untrained group.

The superiority in labor income of the vocationally trained group may be ascribed to the fact that: (a) In six out of nine farming enterprises the vocationally trained group secured larger yields. . . . (b) Vocationally trained farmers show a better balance in their farming business as indicated by a better distribution of income from various sources and a better adjustment of expenses in operating the farm. (c) The vocationally trained group participated in co-operative buying and selling of farm supplies and products to a greater extent, made greater use of approved sources of agricultural information, and were more active in farm organizations. On the whole, the individuals in the trained group were about twice as active in the above-mentioned agencies as were the untrained group.

SOME GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

In the analysis of the data collected in connection with this study certain facts of rather pertinent significance relative to the program of vocational education in agriculture in Virginia have been found. Certain of these facts and findings are set forth in the following statements.

1. If we are to expect young men who have pursued two or more years of high-school instruction to enter upon farming in any appreciable numbers, they should be provided with training in vocational education in agriculture. The 61 communities from which vocationally trained farmers were drawn furnished 136 individuals meeting the specifications of the study. It was necessary to survey 87 communities to locate 69 untrained farmers who met the specifications.

2. The farmers included in the study entered upon farming during a time when the lure of high wages in industry was very great. Eighty-seven and two-tenths per cent of the trained group went directly into farming from high school,

whereas this figure for the untrained group was 71.2 per cent. While the average difference in years spent away from the farm before entering upon farming is greater by only 0.2 of a year for the untrained group, yet there is a greater tendency on the part of the trained group to enter upon farming immediately rather than to experiment with other occupations before returning to the farm.

3. Ninety-five and three-tenths per cent of all of the farmers included in the study have been dependent upon assistance from parents or relatives in becoming established in farming. In some cases land was inherited, but in most cases the young men became established in farming as operators or renters of some farm, a major portion of which they would inherit. Some of the individuals are still operating as renters, and in many cases the landlord is a relative of the farmer or his wife.

4. Data secured from the trained group are considered more accurate than those secured from the untrained group. The percentage of individuals who had pursued training in vocational agriculture, keeping farm records, was greater than for the untrained group. This group also had a better conception of the type of information desired and could reply to the questions included in Form II with more certainty than the untrained group.

5. Data secured at the outset of the study showed rather conclusively that teachers of vocational agriculture had not maintained as close contact with former students of vocational agriculture as the problems confronting these young men justified. It is interesting to note that during the two-year period covered by the study the number of part-time or continuation classes conducted by teachers of vocational agriculture increased from eleven to twenty-eight. The large majority of the enrolment in these classes was composed of former students of vocational agriculture, many of whom were included in the study. Instructors in vocational agriculture, in addition to enrolling a large number of students in organized classes, have, during the past two years, been keeping in much closer touch with former students through visits, correspondence, and similar ways. The co-operation afforded the author by these instructors has been responsible for the change in viewpoint of the teachers and the realization on their part that they must continue to offer instruction to the individual after he leaves high school.

6. Studies which measure the effectiveness of vocational education in agriculture in terms of monetary values should be made in a number of states. In addition to supplying information on the earning ability of groups trained in this type of work, much data will be found which will serve as a basis for analyzing the program within each state and for bringing about changes which will overcome certain defects.

In commenting on the study in the Foreword to the bulletin, J. C. Wright, formerly director of the Federal Board and now assistant commissioner for vocational education, estimates that, with a total of thirteen hundred farm operators in Virginia who have received

vocational training, an average increase in earning power of \$311 would mean an aggregate annual increase for the whole group of over \$400,000. In any "normal" time such an increment would receive nothing but praise, but in a time like the present, with frequent depreciation of agricultural overproduction that lowers prices, there are persons who do not regard such increased efficiency as meritorious. Nevertheless, even if it were agreed that production should be curtailed, the increased efficiency on lower quotas of production would yield a wider margin of time for leisure, which in such circumstances should be regarded as a desirable outcome of vocational training in agriculture.

This reference to leisure calls to mind that the present investigation inquired into the monetary value only of the vocational training received. There is the question also whether the training received should not lead to what may be termed "the good life," which is only in part dependent on larger income. The findings contain merely a hint of possibilities in this regard, at the point where individuals of the vocational group are reported to be about twice as active in co-operative and other farm organizations as are members of the non-vocational group. We suspect that in manner of life, as well as in monetary return, the trained group is superior to the untrained group, and we urge that persons who carry out the recommendation that the present investigation be applied in states other than Virginia extend inquiry into the non-monetary aspects of successful living.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS ON THE TAX PROBLEM

It is now certain that our current difficulties are bringing increased study of the problems of public finance and taxation in secondary and higher schools. The new emphasis may be regarded as one of the "uses of adversity." In this section of our February issue we directed attention to two publications on taxation intended for study by teachers or pupils. Another such publication has just been prepared and issued under the sponsorship of the Northern Illinois Conference on Supervision through its Committee on Taxation. This brochure of about sixty lithoprinted pages, titled *The Tax Problem in Illinois*, is the work of Professor Walter Wellman Cook, of the Eastern Illi-

inois State Teachers College at Charleston. It is intended for use in upper grades and high schools. Single copies may be purchased for fifteen cents and orders in quantity placed at the rate of \$12.50 a hundred. George E. Thompson, superintendent of schools at St. Charles, Illinois, chairman of the Committee on Taxation, is in charge of the distribution.

We mention in passing an instructive series of four articles on "A Tax Policy for the United States," published during January and February in the *New Republic*, which was prepared by Harold M. Groves, former member of the legislature in Wisconsin and of the Wisconsin Tax Commission and professor of public finance in the University of Wisconsin. These articles are comprehensible by most Juniors and Seniors in high school.

DIRECTED STUDY IN NEW YORK STATE

Reference has been made in this section of earlier issues of the *School Review* to certain investigational projects carried on by the Associated Academic Principals of New York State. A project not yet mentioned here is their investigation of supervised study. The report of the study has been published as Bulletin Number 1025 of the University of the State of New York under the title *Directed Study: A Review of the Theory and an Analysis of the Practices in New York State Schools*. In a Foreword to the bulletin George M. Wiley, assistant commissioner for secondary education, defines the procedure investigated as follows.

Directed study is a change in emphasis from teacher activity to pupil activity. It offers an unusual opportunity for individual growth as well as group instruction. Directed study puts a new emphasis on the learning process. Schools have given so much attention to teaching methods in relation to the mass and to the teaching process in relation to subject matter that we have largely overlooked the fact that teaching is effective only as it challenges growth and development on the part of the individual.

The report proper is the work of Warren W. Coxe, director of educational research for the University of the State of New York. It consists of two main parts, namely, a compact and informative review of the literature of the subject and a statement of the results of an investigation of classroom procedures of more than nineteen hun-

dred teachers in a great diversity of subjects. These teachers were probably not far from a representative group, and one should, therefore, not be surprised at the uncomplimentary generalization from the evidence.

The description of methods used by the teachers cannot be adequately summarized except by saying that the general impression given by their methods is that of superficiality. Teachers are acquainted in general with such a thing as supervised study, but what it means and what its possibilities are, are very inadequately grasped.

Not only from the tabulated material but also from the descriptive material, one is forced to one outstanding recommendation, that high-school teachers should be better informed of the literature in this highly important subject; furthermore, that they should make a more careful study of some of the more helpful supervised study techniques. Organization for supervised study is not so important, probably, as a clear conception of the meaning of supervised study and the mastery of the methods to be employed. . . .

The general impression would, of course, have been more favorable if selected teachers and schools only had been included, and the practices would have been found nearer the definition which we have quoted from the Foreword. The typical school everywhere still has far to go before achieving effective direction of the pupils' study.

THE HIGH-SCHOOL QUESTION BEFORE THE COURTS IN THE POST-CIVIL-WAR PERIOD

B. JEANNETTE BURRELL

General Library, University of Michigan

R. H. ECKELBERRY

Ohio State University

EARLY OPPOSITION TO THE PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL

The free public high school as a legitimate and necessary part of the American public-school system was not, by the close of the Civil War, supported by an overwhelming preponderance of public opinion. On the contrary, not only the legality but also the desirability and the practicability of maintaining free public high schools were highly controversial issues for a full quarter-century following that war. By 1865 high schools existed in a number of localities but—like instruction in fine arts, music, industrial arts, physical education, etc., today—were regarded by a great many people as belonging to the “fads and frills” of education. As such, they were subjected to severe and widespread attack, which called forth an equally spirited and widely distributed defense.

The Kalamazoo Case and the one or two other cases mentioned by the textbooks were not isolated instances of opposition to the high school, but incidents of an active, extensive, and long-continued controversy concerning the policy of maintaining free public high schools. This controversy took many forms, including general discussions in addresses, newspapers, and periodicals; sharp and definite local disputes; legislative action; and consideration by state constitutional conventions. One of the most important of these forms was litigation, particularly that which was carried to courts of last resort. It is the purpose of the present article to discuss that litigation.

THE CASES IN THE COURTS

The American Digest lists nine cases between 1865 and 1893 in each of which one or more questions concerning the legality of the

high school were decided by the highest court of a state. There is one other case which contains a hint of opposition to the high school but does not involve its legality. In several of these cases other questions were also involved, but the writers will ignore these and confine attention to those which directly concern the legal status of the high school.

In New England the legal issues with regard to the right and duty of towns to support secondary education had arisen early. In 1819¹ and again in 1846² the Supreme Judicial Court of Massachusetts had decided in favor of secondary education provided at public expense. These decisions seem to have settled the question for New England; at least no cases were discovered which came up to the superior courts of that region during the period covered by this study.

In the Middle West, however, precedents seem to have been less willingly accepted, and the battle was fought out in several different states. The earliest case which the writers found in the period following the Civil War was that commonly called the Kalamazoo Case.³ While this litigation apparently was the most important of all the high-school cases during this period, it is so well known that it will not here be discussed in detail. Briefly, the case was begun in 1872 as a friendly test suit following an opinion by the attorney-general favorable to high schools; on February 9, 1874, was decided by the Court of the Ninth Judicial Circuit in favor of the high school; was carried to the Supreme Court of the state and during the July term was again decided in favor of the high school in an opinion written by Chief Justice Thomas M. Cooley.⁴ Before the significance of the Kalamazoo decision is discussed, the other decisions dealing with the legality of the high school will be noted briefly in chronological order.

¹ *Commonwealth v. The Inhabitants of Dedham*, 16 Mass. (16 Tyng) 141.

² *John N. Cushing v. Inhabitants of Newburyport*, 51 Mass. (10 Metcalf) 508.

³ *Charles E. Stuart et al. v. School District No. 1 of Kalamazoo et al.*, 30 Mich. 69.

⁴ *Thirty-seventh Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, with Accompanying Documents, for the Year 1873*, pp. 390-407. For more extensive quotations from this decision than those usually given, see J. L. Clifton, "The Kalamazoo Case," *American School Board Journal*, LXXXVII (November, 1933), 26-27.

The next case,¹ which probably was instituted before the Kalamazoo Case, concerned the expulsion in 1871 of a high-school pupil in Winnebago County, Illinois, for failure to comply with the requirement that she study bookkeeping. The legal point at issue was "whether the power has been granted the directors to compel scholars to study other and higher branches than those enumerated in the law." The decision of the Supreme Court of Illinois was rendered in September, 1875, and held:

The General Assembly have invested school directors with the power to compel the teaching of other and higher branches than those enumerated to those willing to receive instruction therein, but has left it purely optional with parents and guardians whether the children under their charge shall study such branches.

This concluding section of the opinion would seem to constitute a not inconsiderable victory for the high school. In the earlier part of the opinion, however, the court held that permission to have other and higher branches taught did not give the school directors power to establish academies, colleges, or universities. "Nor can we hold that this license to have other and higher branches taught empowers the directors to establish and maintain high schools, as they are denominated." The decision did not indicate to what extent higher branches might be taught without usurping the illegal power of maintaining a high school. President J. L. Pickard, of the University of Iowa, in an article published in 1882,² extracted the summary of this decision from its context and cited it as a precedent for the legality of the high school. It seems to the writers, however, that the proper interpretation is that the decision was at least as much of a defeat as a victory for the high school.

The next case³ was decided in 1879 by the same court. It involved the constitutionality of a law of 1874 permitting the establishment of a township high school on a majority vote of the electors. Since the constitution required the General Assembly to provide "a thorough and efficient system of free schools whereby all the children of

¹ *Henry Rulison et al. v. Frances S. Post*, 79 Ill. 567.

² J. L. Pickard, "The High School: Its Necessity and Right To Exist as a Part of the True System of Public Education," *Education*, III (November, 1882), 162.

³ *Frederick Richards v. Samuel W. Raymond*, 92 Ill. 612.

the state may receive a good common school education," the plaintiff contended that the constitution had limited the legislature to the establishment of free schools of different character from those authorized in the law of 1874 and to maintenance of free schools by local taxation. The court held that a high school could be both a free school and a common school as provided by the constitution and that, therefore, the law was constitutional.

Another case¹ of the same year was decided by the Supreme Court of Mississippi. Although the dispute did not grow out of opposition to the high school, it has been included in this account since the decision established the high school as a part of the public-school system of that state. The issue was the constitutionality of the act of 1878, which had permitted children sent to private schools to receive their share of the state school funds. The constitution of 1868 provided:

It shall be the duty of the legislature to encourage, by all suitable means, the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvements, by establishing a uniform system of free public schools, by taxation or otherwise, for all children between the ages of five and twenty-one years, and shall as soon as practicable, establish schools of higher grade. . . .

There shall be established a common-school fund . . . the interest of which shall be inviolably appropriated for the support of free schools.

The plaintiff contended that the "schools of higher grade" were regarded in the constitution as a part of the public-school system and consequently had the right to such a share in the common-school fund as the legislature might decide. Hence, under the act of 1878 advanced as well as elementary pupils in private schools should be paid their share of the common-school fund. The attorney-general of the state, on behalf of the defendant, denied that the constitution authorized the use of the common-school fund for schools of higher grade, contending instead that the constitution provided for the common schools but left the entire matter of advanced schools to the future. Concerning the question whether high schools should be regarded as a part of the public-school system of the state, the court agreed with the plaintiff, declaring: "They will be equally entitled to share in the common-school fund, in such ratio and to such amount as the legislature may deem proper, and will be equally sub-

¹ *Charles H. Otken v. J. S. Lamkin*, 56 Miss. 758.

ject to the restrictions imposed by the constitution, so far as appropriate."

A third case¹ in the same year was decided by the Court of Appeals of Maryland. The Board of County School Commissioners of Allegany County wished to convert a district elementary school in Cumberland into a high school. The trustees of the district did not want a high school in Cumberland and sought an injunction against the action of the commissioners on the ground that the law required the school building to be donated, whereas in this case it had been requisitioned. The court held that a donation was necessary only for district high schools, not for county high schools, and that it had no right to decide whether the board had judiciously exercised its discretion in providing for a high school. The case was probably of only local interest and, so far as indicated in the abridged report available, seems not to have involved the legality of the high school in that state. It is included in this account because of the hint of an underlying opposition to the high school.

The next case² is probably more important than any other with the exception of the Kalamazoo Case. A number of taxpayers of a school district of St. Clair County, Illinois, complained that the Board of Education had been misappropriating school funds, since it was using part of the funds for teaching in the common schools subjects other than those specified in the qualifications for teachers. It was alleged that the teaching of these subjects—German orthography, reading, penmanship, and grammar—resulted in the giving of a German rather than an English education in the common schools. The most recent school code (1872) had described the course of study for common schools as “instruction in the branches of education prescribed in the qualifications for teachers, and in such other branches, including vocal music and drawing, as the directors, or the voters of the district, at the annual election of directors, may prescribe.” The defendant claimed that German had been taught in these schools for fifteen years and that the voters had declared their wishes at the election in 1878, when the teaching of German had been an issue.

¹ *W. Wyatt Wiley et al., Trustees v. The Board of County School Commissioners of Allegany County*, 51 Md. 401.

² *William H. Powell et al. v. The Board of Education*, 97 Ill. 375.

The dispute centered in the meaning of the phrase "such other branches" in the law of 1872. In the decision rendered in February, 1881, Justice J. M. Scott, like Justice Cooley in the Kalamazoo Case, sought an interpretation from the legislative history of the state. This history showed that, beginning with the school law of 1845 and continuing through a number of later acts, the legislature had required that the English language should be the instrument of instruction in the common schools but that instruction in other modern languages might be permitted. The most recent school law, that of 1872, had omitted this reference to modern languages, but the court did not believe that the omission was intended as a prohibition of their teaching:

It would be an unreasonable construction, because the act of 1872 is silent upon the question of teaching modern languages in common schools, it is therefore a restriction on that policy that had grown up under former legislation, and had been so generally acted upon throughout the state. Had such been the intention of the General Assembly, it would no doubt have used apt words to express that intention. The absence of any affirmative expressions abrogating the former policy in respect to teaching modern languages in the common schools is persuasive, at least, that that policy was not to be changed.¹

The next case² bearing on the legality of the high school was instituted as a taxpayer's suit to restrain the Board of President and Directors of the St. Louis Public Schools from expending its revenues for teaching the languages, arts, sciences, and other advanced subjects on the ground that the schools in charge of the board were common schools, where only the rudiments of an English education could lawfully be taught. Both the Circuit Court and the St. Louis Court of Appeals (1879) decided against the plaintiff, who carried the case to the Supreme Court of Missouri. The decision of the court, rendered in 1883, in the matter of teaching advanced subjects, with which we are concerned, affirmed the decision of the lower court in the following words: "The term 'common' when applied to schools, is used to denote that they are open and public to all, rather than to indicate the grade of school or what may or may not be taught therein."

¹ It is interesting to note that Justice Walker, author of the somewhat ambiguous decision in the case of *Henry Rulison et al. v. Frances S. Post*, dissented from this opinion.

² *Roach v. The Board of President and Directors of the St. Louis Public Schools*, 77 Mo. 484.

For the report of the next case¹ only the digest was available, giving the principal points of the decision of the Court of Appeals of Kentucky. Apparently, the plaintiffs sought an injunction against the collection of a school tax, maintaining that the money was being wasted. The case was, doubtless, a test of the legality of the upward extension of the common schools. The decision, rendered in 1887, favored advanced public instruction:

That Latin and Greek are taught in the school is not in violation of the act under which this tax is collected, nor is the teaching of such branches of learning in violation of the common-school law of the state. If the ordinary branches of education are taught, and the school open to all, the fact that the teacher may have a class in Latin or Greek should not prevent the collection of the tax, or authorize an injunction against him or the trustees to prevent it. A system of education adopted in the particular district in aid of the common-school fund, authorized by the legislature, by which a tax is imposed, that the school may be taught the entire year, or the higher branches of education brought within reach of all the children, is not in violation of the constitution, state or federal, and therefore we see no reason for granting the relief sought. . . .

The next case² was decided by the Supreme Court of Kansas in 1890. The plaintiff sought an injunction against the collection of a tax for the erection and maintenance of a county high school, pleading that the law of 1886 which provided for the establishment of county high schools was unconstitutional. He contended that the constitution provided for two classes of schools, primary and collegiate, and that the high school belonged to neither class. The constitutional provision read as follows: "The legislature shall encourage the promotion of intellectual, moral, scientific, and agricultural improvement, by establishing a uniform system of common schools, and schools of a higher grade, embracing normal, preparatory, collegiate, and university departments." The court held that the high school was a school of higher grade and that, even if it could not be definitely classified as belonging to one of the types of schools specified in the constitution, that document did not forbid the maintenance of such a school:

The concern of the constitution-makers does not seem to have been to provide against the danger of too many schools, but to secure a common-school system

¹ *Newman et al. v. Thompson et al.*, 4 S.W. 341.

² *Frederick Koester v. The Board of Commissioners of Atchison County et al.*, 44 Kan.

principally, and also other schools of higher grade. We do not think the law of 1886 violates section 2 of article 6 of the constitution of Kansas.

This case seemed at the time to be a victory for the high school but later proved something of an obstacle for it, since difficulty developed in applying the laws for common schools to the high schools, which had been declared to be schools of a higher grade. Three years later the same court rendered another decision¹ which identified high schools and common schools in a single system. The question at issue was the legality of a bond issue for the purpose of purchasing a site and erecting thereon a high-school building, the transaction having been performed under the laws for common schools. The issue became whether a high school was a part of the common-school system of the state or a different type of school which required a different code of laws for its operation. Both the trial court and the Supreme Court held that the high school and the primary school were parts of a single system. They pointed out that it would be impossible to draw a line between common schools and high schools. The opinion of the court in the case of *Frederick Koester v. The Board of Commissioners of Atchison County et al.* might be interpreted to refer only to county high schools, which were required to teach higher branches, while for the common schools of the state the higher branches were permissive:

While the school law prescribes that certain branches shall be taught in the common schools of the state, it permits "other branches" to be taught, as may be determined by the district boards. . . . The statute is permissive authority for the various boards of the state to teach in the common schools the higher branches, including Latin and the modern languages. The boards should exercise their best judgment, keeping always in view the highest good of the public schools.

A NEW ESTIMATE OF THE KALAMAZOO CASE

Of these cases, the Kalamazoo Case has received more attention from students of education than all the others. Most of the books dealing with, or even touching, the history of the high school assign great importance to that case, not only for Michigan, but for other states as well. In view of this tendency to stress the influence of the Kalamazoo decision in other states, it is interesting to note

¹ *Board of Education of the City of Topeka v. R. B. Welch*, 51 Kan. 792.

that in the nine supreme-court decisions dealing in some way with the right to maintain high schools, all of which followed the Kalamazoo Case, that case was cited only twice. Justice J. M. Scott in the case of *William H. Powell et al. v. The Board of Education* (1881) said concerning the Michigan case: "Questions analogous with those involved in this decision were discussed, and much of the reasoning in the opinion is valuable as aiding us in the construction we have given to our own statute." In the case of *Board of Education of the City of Topeka v. R. B. Welch* (1893), the Kalamazoo Case was cited but not discussed. These references, however, constitute more citation than the writers found for any other case. Of the other cases, only three were cited at all (*Richards v. Raymond* in *William H. Powell et al. v. The Board of Education*, *William H. Powell et al. v. The Board of Education* and *Frederick Koester v. The Board of Commissioners of Atchison County et al.* in *Board of Education of the City of Topeka v. R. B. Welch*); each was cited but once; and only one of the citations was by a court of another state. However, the fact that the Kalamazoo Case was cited only twice and discussed only once in these decisions is, of course, not conclusive evidence that it did not influence the thinking and the decisions of attorney-generals, state superintendents, local school officials, legislators, and others having to do with educational policy. But the scarcity of citation of the case tends, at least, to prove that our estimate of the influence of the decision may have been too high.

Another test of the influence of this decision is furnished by the number and the character of references to it in contemporary educational literature. The references which the writers have discovered include an editorial in the *National Teacher* for November, 1875;¹ a paper read by H. D. Harrower before the Michigan State Teachers' Association in 1877;² an article in 1878 by George R. Gear, principal of the Preparatory Department of Marietta College;³ an address before the Department of Superintendence of the National Education

¹ *National Teacher*, V (November, 1875), 461.

² H. D. Harrower, "A Field View of the Schools," *Forty-first Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, with Accompanying Documents, for the Year 1877*, p. 281.

³ George R. Gear, "The High School Question," *Ohio Educational Monthly*, XXVII (July, 1878), 201.

Association in 1877 by James H. Smart, superintendent of public instruction of Indiana;¹ an article in 1882 by President J. L. Pickard of the University of Iowa;² and a paper in 1887 by W. H. Payne, professor of pedagogy at the University of Michigan.³ Limitations of space preclude a detailed examination of these references. It must suffice to point out that, while Harrower's address showed but slight appreciation, if not a note of depreciation, of Justice Cooley's opinion and Pickard's article simply referred to the Kalamazoo Case among others, without indicating any rank it might have, all the other references showed appreciation of the importance of the decision.

In the attempt to form a new estimate of the importance of the Kalamazoo Case, several additional facts must be kept in mind. The issue in this case was frankly faced; the institutions under attack were called "high schools" and not merely upper grades or additional courses. No other decision which the writers have found dealt as definitely with the fundamental question of supplying free public advanced education. The progressive and liberal view of the judge, who brushed aside legal technicalities and centered his attention on an interpretation of the desires of the people of the state and on their future welfare, added force to the decision. This discerning analysis of the fundamental issues can be quickly recognized by a comparison of the treatment of the case in the lower and the higher courts, Judge C. R. Brown of the Circuit Court having reached his decision from a textual study of the laws and the constitutional provisions involved. Still further weight is given to the decision by the eminence of Justice Cooley, who was Jay Professor of Law at the University of Michigan, a visiting lecturer at Johns Hopkins University, justice and later chief justice of the Supreme Court of Michigan, and an author of distinction. Considering all the circumstances, it is probably safe to say that, while the Kalamazoo Case was the most

¹ "Proceedings of the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association for 1877," *Circulars of Information of the Bureau of Education*, No. 2, 1879, Appendix A, p. 171. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1879.

² J. L. Pickard, "The High School: Its Necessity and Right To Exist as a Part of the True System of Public Education," *Education*, III (November, 1882), 162.

³ W. H. Payne, "The Functions of the High School," *Academy*, II (December, 1887), 402.

important and influential of all the high-school cases, the current estimate of its importance is somewhat exaggerated.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

In considering the group of cases which have been discussed, we note first that they were chronologically and geographically widespread. The earliest case was begun probably in 1871, and the latest was decided in 1893. The supreme courts of seven states, principally in the Middle West, dealt with the high-school question. The Kansas court dealt with it twice and the Illinois court three times. With the exception of *Charles H. Olken v. J. S. Lamkin* (1879), every case grew out of opposition to the high school. With the partial exception of *Henry Rulison et al. v. Frances S. Post* (1875), all the decisions were favorable to the high school. If we may assume that the opinions of the courts do, in a broad way, reflect dominant public opinion, the decisions would seem to indicate that throughout this period opposition to the free public high school, while strong and active, represented the view of a minority.

CONCERTED ATTACK ON PRESSING SCHOOL PROBLEMS

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Reorganizing a round table.—The Southeastern Michigan Round Table is a voluntary organization of high-school principals and others interested in secondary education in a half-circle of territory with a fifty-mile radius which has Detroit as its center. The group ordinarily met three or four times a year for a luncheon meeting, usually at some high school upon invitation of the principal or at one of the higher institutions in the area. At these meetings, which were always informal, a talk was given on some topic of general interest, and the company then adjourned to a nearby golf links.

Many of the programs of the meetings were stimulating—a visit to the Ford Trade School, a trip through Greenfield Village, a report by the principal of a Canadian high school on the organization and policies of secondary education in our neighboring commonwealth—but until recently there was no provision by the organization for continuity in the topics presented or for any action involving the group as a whole. Until the current year the administration of the Round Table had consisted in one officer, a president, who decided on the place and the frequency of meetings, planned the programs, sent out notices, and provided for the election of a successor at the final meeting of the year. For several years a feeling had been growing among members that a more definite organization and a more constructive policy were demanded if the Round Table was to justify its existence in this critical period.

During the school year 1931-32, under the administration of Mr. Forrest Averill, principal of the Fordson High School, Fordson, Michigan, important steps were taken toward reorganization of the group. Emphasis in the programs was shifted in the direction of discussion by members of problems vital to the schools of the local area. A committee was appointed to reformulate the constitution of the

group. At the final meeting of the year Dr. Judd, of the University of Chicago, speaking before the Round Table, discussed the challenge of the social order to the secondary school and urged the group to make its activities contribute to definite attack on the problems of secondary education within the area which it served.

The new constitution adopted by the group provides for active and associate members, the former classification being limited to the principals of North Central schools, registrars, and professors of secondary education of higher institutions in five counties of southeastern Michigan. The functions of the organization, as stated in the constitution, are "(1) to study and discuss the problems of secondary education and (2) to promote friendliness among the members." The constitution also provides for an executive committee¹ composed of a president, a vice-president, and a secretary-treasurer, elected at the final meeting of the year. This committee met early in the summer to formulate plans for the year, and meetings have been held at frequent intervals during its term of office.

The committee recognized at the outset that frequent gatherings of the whole group would be impossible. Even if meetings were held at the most central point of the territory covered, some principals would have to drive fifty miles or more to reach the meeting place. In all schools of the section the economic situation had presented special local problems which made heavy demands on the time and the energy of principals. In many cases teaching staffs had been reduced, clerical help withdrawn, and administrative assistance curtailed. A program which would entail frequent meetings or add responsibilities to already overburdened administrators could result only in failure. The task of the committee, then, was to discover the most vital interests of the Round Table members and the immediate problems in the local schools and to set up machinery for attacking some of the most critical of these problems with a minimum of duplication of effort.

Mapping out the new program.—There is much lost motion in secondary-school circles through failure to profit by the experiments and

¹ The first executive committee under the new constitution consisted of C. P. Steimle, registrar of Michigan State Normal College, vice-president; Leigh G. Cooper, principal of the Edwin Denby High School of Detroit, secretary-treasurer; and the author as president.

experiences of even neighboring schools. It was the feeling of the executive committee that the greatest service to member schools and to progress in education generally could be made if the Round Table were to serve as a clearing-house of information concerning problems and practices among the schools in the group and if small but active committees were set up to report, co-ordinate, and direct progress in the solution of those problems selected.

As a first step in this program, a letter was sent to members asking expressions of opinion on the proposal of the executive committee, presenting a list of possible topics for discussion and study, and requesting members to supply additional problems which to them seemed critical or significant. The returns from the questionnaire were gratifying. Fifty-three of the seventy-three members sent in replies. Of these fifty-three, all but two welcomed the plan of concerted attack on secondary-school problems through committees. Of the two members opposed, one felt that the Round Table was "not well enough organized to study a problem effectively." The other indicated that the real purpose of the organization was to promote acquaintance among members and that it ought not to be allowed to become "a callow school of education."

The replies showed a community of interest among the principals represented. Thirty-seven expressed themselves in favor of studying "changes in the high-school curriculum which are likely to result from current social and economic trends." Twenty-nine were interested in policies affecting the recommendation of pupils for admission to college. Twenty-eight requests were received for discussion of the question, "Should all teen-age pupils in the community be encouraged (or compelled) to attend high schools as now organized?" Twenty-six favored a study of the findings and recommendations of the National Survey of Secondary Education, and twenty-five found the problem of provision for the unadjusted or the non-academic pupil most pressing. Both in indication of interest in topics proposed by the committee and in additional problems suggested in the blank pages of the questionnaire, the membership of the Round Table showed an encouraging awareness of the social changes taking place within communities and the responsibilities which these changes lay upon the school.

It was decided to build the year's program around the four main lines of interest here indicated: first, modifications which the school should make in terms of a changing society; second, the findings of the National Survey of Secondary Education; third, admission to college and the relations between college and secondary schools which are involved; and fourth, provision for the unadjusted pupil in high school, with particular reference to that group which will not profit from higher education as now organized. The second of these proposals had to be abandoned as it was evident that the publication of the reports of the National Survey of Secondary Education would not be far enough advanced to enable the group to give them adequate study during the school year 1932-33. The program as actually carried out consequently involved the remaining three interests.

The topic of the first meeting was announced as "The High School of the Future," and members were asked to come prepared to present their own ideas concerning impending changes in the secondary school. The keynote of this discussion was provided in an address¹ by Principal L. L. Forsythe, of the Ann Arbor High School, who presented a convincing picture of a high school responsive to social and avocational responsibilities rather than to strictly academic needs. This talk served to provoke active discussion concerning changes in curriculum, organization, and objectives of the secondary school. At this first meeting committees were appointed to carry out the other two lines of study planned for the year and to present their findings at succeeding meetings of the organization. The committees were made up of both college and high-school representatives, and each included a member of the executive committee. In each case the chairman was a high-school principal.

The midyear meeting was given over to the report of the Committee on the Unadjusted Pupil. In planning its investigation, this committee organized its study around two main lines of inquiry: First, it sought to find out the objectives which administrators and teachers of the schools within the area deemed appropriate for pupils of low ability. Second, it endeavored to discover and report some of the most promising experiments found in dealing with this group. Twenty-

¹ This address appears in full in the *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (April, 1933), 473-79.

ty-two schools contributed to a questionnaire study which was analyzed by the committee, and the report included a description of practices in three schools which had made special progress in meeting needs of these pupils.

In carrying out its program, the Committee on College Relations, which reported at the spring meeting, secured the co-operation of the registrars of Michigan State Normal College and the University of Michigan, of the Bureau of Educational Investigations of the University, and of the Department of Research of the Detroit Schools. Since some of the most significant developments in the college-admission field have had to do with the use of newer types of measurement to identify those graduates who will profit from college work, the committee initiated a uniform program testing college aptitude to be carried on by the schools throughout the area. In planning its investigation, the committee profited by the results of the state-wide testing program of Wisconsin.¹ The American Council Psychological Test was used for the committee's experiment. Forty-two member schools co-operated in the project, administering the test during the week ending March 10, 1933, to a total of 7,968 graduating Seniors. At the time of taking the test each pupil furnished information concerning his scholastic interest and his educational and vocational plans, and the principals were asked to provide data on the scholastic ranks of the Seniors taking part. The tests and the information blanks were analyzed by the Bureau of Educational Investigations of the University of Michigan and were reported to the Round Table by Dr. C. S. Yoakum at the spring meeting. A written analysis sent to each co-operating school showed the distribution of test scores for each individual school (indicated by code numbers) and for the group as a whole. In addition, the report included studies based on future educational and vocational plans of participants, on preferences as to school subjects, and on scholastic success in high school. The facts and relations presented in the report should prove

¹ *A Report on the Administration of Scholastic Aptitude Tests to 34,000 High School Seniors in Wisconsin in 1929 and 1930.* Prepared for the Committee on Co-operation, Wisconsin Secondary Schools and Colleges, by V. A. C. Henmon and F. O. Holt. Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, Serial No. 1786, General Series No. 1570. Madison Wisconsin: Bureau of Guidance and Records, University of Wisconsin, 1931.

extremely helpful to high-school principals and to college personnel officers in their tasks of educational guidance.

Comment in appraisal.—In reviewing the year's work of the Round Table, one is aware of certain obvious shortcomings and imperfections in the program. The committees were composed of active administrators, busy with the detailed responsibilities of their own schools and unable to devote time to the careful research which some of these problems demand. Furthermore, it is impossible to bring all members of a group to see the value of such studies as those here initiated and to co-operate in them. Some projects which the executive committee had hoped to carry out had to be abandoned because of lack of time or of interest on the part of the membership.

At the same time, a program carried out by a professional group such as the one represented here has certain distinct advantages. Faced with practical problems of organization and administration, such a group is likely to attack problems of immediate practical importance. In effect, the organization is provided with a considerable number of laboratories in which theoretical points of view may be tested. Through the pooling of experiences all may profit from the progress made by individual institutions. Moreover, the stimulating reflex effect on the persons taking part in such a program is likely to induce realistic facing of educational problems and aggressive attack upon them.

TRAIT ACTIONS OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL CITIZENS

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THE PROBLEM AND THE PRESENT STUDY

Many individuals have attempted to compile lists of traits which should serve as ideals to guide persons in their social relations with others. Codes of conduct and courses in character education have been built around these traits. The writer, confronted with the problem of placing direct emphasis on conduct problems in the school with which he is connected, secured, from the pupils themselves, their teachers, and their parents, ratings on 115 traits of social living which these groups believed to be important for junior high school pupils. The fifty-nine ranking traits were telescoped into the following ten groups. This grouping represents a co-operative enterprise in which a number of teachers assisted. Like any such compilation of traits, it is open to criticism.

Accuracy:	Loyalty	Truthfulness
Carefulness	Modesty	Health:
Neatness	Patriotism	Cleanliness
Attitude:	Self-control	Neatness
Ambition	Sportsmanship	Poise
Attention	Courtesy:	Posture
Courage	Adaptability	Vitality
Interest	Charm	Industry:
Open-mindedness	Kindness	Determination
Willingness	Manners	Persistence
Considerateness:	Politeness	Self-confidence
Patience	Sincerity	Thoroughness
Respectfulness	Tact	Initiative:
Reverence	Dependableness:	Leadership
Sympathy	Honesty	Originality
Thoughtfulness	Honor	Resourcefulness
Tolerance	Obedience	Thrift:
Unselfishness	Promptness	Time
Usefulness	Regularity	Money
Co-operation:	Reliability	Supplies
Fairness	Responsibility	
Helpfulness	Trustworthiness	

The present study, dealing with trait actions, was an outgrowth of the study in traits. The purpose of this study was to find the important trait actions which junior high school citizens should manifest in their lives. Specifically, the problem may be stated as follows: What are the trait actions, under each of the ten trait groups, which should be exhibited in the following situations: in the classroom, in the home room, in a club, in the corridor, in the auditorium, in the gymnasium, on the playground, on the bus, in the home?

THE PROCEDURE

With the assistance of a selected committee of teachers, the writer listed 350 trait actions under the various school and home situations for each of the ten trait groups. The list was submitted to various groups for their judgments on the relative importance of these trait actions. These groups included (1) twenty-four principals and superintendents of schools, (2) forty-three elementary-school teachers, (3) twenty-four secondary-school teachers, (4) twenty-seven junior high school pupils in Grade IX A, and (5) fourteen "frontier thinkers" in the field of citizenship and character education. The persons in the first three of these groups were members of a teachers' college class in curriculum problems in the social studies during the summer of 1932. This class had been considering the problem of training for citizenship in terms of specific qualities and acts needed to make the individual a good and worthy citizen. Consequently, it may be concluded that the ninety-one members of this class had given the matter most careful consideration and had approached the problem with more or less common understanding. The ratings given by this class may therefore be assumed to be fairly reliable. The twenty-seven ninth-grade pupils rated the list as a voluntary home-room project. The members of the home room were pupils somewhat below the average in ability. Only those pupils who wished to do so rated the items. Three-fourths of those who gave ratings were girls. Since only pupils who wished to do so rated the list, it is probable that the ratings were made with some care. The fourteen frontier thinkers included men and women who are generally recognized as having made outstanding contributions to the literature of citizenship and of character education through research and writings, including textbooks which have wide usage.

Each person was given a mimeographed list of trait actions and was told to put \times before the most important and \circ before the unimportant items. Those items marked \times were given a weighting of 3, those marked \circ a weighting of 1, and the unmarked items a weighting of 2. The weighted ratings of each item in each of the five groups were added, and the percentage of the largest possible rating was determined. To illustrate, under courtesy the question, "Do you accept assignments cheerfully?" was marked \circ by three of the twenty-four secondary-school teachers and \times by nine of these teachers, while twelve of these teachers gave this question no mark. The weighted ratings, then, were $3 \times 1 = 3$, $9 \times 3 = 27$, $12 \times 2 = 24$, or a total of 54. If all had rated this trait action \times , the weighted rating would have been 24×3 , or 72. The total of 54, then, was only 75 per cent of the possible rating, which gave the question a rank of 50.5 among the 69 items under courtesy. The combined ranking of each of the several groups was secured by the use of the same procedure. The weighted rankings for all the items were totaled for the groups for which combined ratings were to be determined, and the percentages of the possible ratings were determined.

SOME FINDINGS

The average percentages given the ten traits by the five rating groups are shown in Table I. The most striking characteristic of this table is the fact that the averages of the ratings given trait actions under all ten traits by pupils are consistently lower than the ratings given by any other group. Another is the slight range between the highest and the lowest averages for the pupils in contrast with the ranges for the adult groups. The percentages of the pupil averages are about 10 points smaller than those of the adults, and the total range of the pupils' percentages is only 3.3 in contrast with 6.2 for the college class and 5.3 for the frontier thinkers. If each trait action had been left blank, that is, if it had been rated as neither least important nor most important, it would have had a rating of 66.67 per cent. The pupils actually gave many of the items ratings of 3 or 1, but, because a very large proportion of the items rated 3 by a number of pupils were rated 1 by others, the average is near 2. The fact that the average percentage of the pupils' ratings is only about 73,

or less than 6 points above 66.67 per cent (a rating of 2), while the average adults' rating is around 83, or 16 points above 66.67, shows the greater unanimity of judgment among the adults concerning the relative importance of the trait actions. This same tendency, which points toward the questionable validity and reliability of the pupils' ratings, is again noted in the fact that the coefficients of correlation, as given in Table II, between the pupils' ratings and the ratings of the four adult rating groups are generally much lower than the intercorrelations between the same adult groups.

TABLE I
AVERAGE PERCENTAGES OF IMPORTANCE GIVEN TRAIT ACTIONS UNDER TEN
TRAIT HEADINGS BY FIVE RATING GROUPS

TRAIT	TEACHERS'-COLLEGE CLASS IN CITIZENSHIP TRAINING				NINTH- GRADE PUPILS	FRONTIER THINKERS
	Elemen- tary- School Teachers	Second- ary- School Teachers	Superin- tendents	Total		
Health.....	87.3	85.6	85.9	86.4	74.6	82.8
Dependableness.....	84.9	86.0	84.7	85.2	74.1	84.3
Neatness and accuracy.....	83.2	84.7	83.9	83.0	71.3	81.7
Attitude.....	82.9	85.0	83.6	83.6	71.7	83.3
Considerateness.....	83.3	84.3	82.8	83.5	73.0	83.3
Industry.....	81.3	83.2	82.7	82.4	71.5	82.6
Co-operation.....	81.2	81.4	81.6	81.8	73.6	80.0
Thrift.....	81.3	81.1	80.7	81.2	71.7	79.0
Courtesy.....	81.9	79.7	79.3	80.6	73.3	81.9
Initiative.....	79.1	81.3	81.1	80.2	73.4	81.4

Table I also shows that among the adult groups there is considerable agreement in the rank orders of the ratings under the ten traits. Trait actions under health receive the highest average rating by all except the secondary-school teachers and the frontier thinkers, who give these items ranks of 2 and 4, respectively. Trait actions under dependableness are ranked first by these two groups and second by all others. However, the differences in the percentages are so small as to give rank little significance.

The statistical relations of the ratings of the various groups are shown in Table II. The column showing the correlations among adult groups ("Average except Pupils") shows that there is greatest

agreement on trait actions under courtesy (correlation of .90) and the least agreement on trait actions under industry (correlation of .60). The average correlations of interadult groups range from .77 for superintendents-elementary-school teachers to .71 for superintendents-secondary-school teachers. The correlations between the ratings of pupils and teachers and those between the ratings of pupils and frontier thinkers are consistently lower than the correlations

TABLE II
COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION OF RATINGS GIVEN TRAIT ACTIONS UNDER
TEN TRAIT HEADINGS BY FIVE GROUPS

Trait	Superintendents and Elementary-School Teachers	Superintendents and Secondary-School Teachers	Elementary-School and Secondary-School Teachers	Teachers and Frontier Thinkers	Teachers and Pupils	Frontier Thinkers and Pupils	Average except Pupils	Average of All Correlations
Health.....	.88	.71	.87	.82	.75	.60	.82	.77
Dependableness.....	.72	.63	.63	.76	.19	.20	.69	.52
Neatness and accuracy.....	.87	.77	.81	.07	.70	.54	.86	.78
Attitude.....	.76	.52	.84	.72	.46	.47	.71	.63
Considerateness.....	.76	.86	.79	.72	.44	.36	.78	.66
Industry.....	.67	.61	.52	.58	.50	.38	.60	.55
Co-operation.....	.72	.63	.63	.85	.47	.46	.71	.63
Thrift.....	.84	.58	.84	.62	.47	.56	.72	.65
Courtesy.....	.83	.97	.91	.89	.58	.61	.90	.80
Initiative.....	.63	.82	.67	.58	.22	.33	.68	.54
Average of correlations.....	.77	.71	.75	.75	.48	.45	.75	.65

between the ratings of any two adult groups. The average of all the correlations for pupils is .465 in contrast with an average of .75 for adults.

Space does not permit a complete tabulation of the 350 trait actions under their respective situations with the percentages of rating and their rank order by the five rating groups. The 49 trait actions which were given 90 per cent or more of their possible ratings by both the college class and by the frontier thinkers are shown in the following outline. No item under neatness and accuracy received a rating of 90 per cent by both these groups.

TRAIT ACTIONS RATED 90 PER CENT OR ABOVE BY A CLASS IN CURRICULUM
PROBLEMS IN THE SOCIAL STUDIES AND BY FRONTIER THINKERS IN
THE FIELD OF CITIZENSHIP AND CHARACTER EDUCATION

I. Health

1. General

- a) Do you bathe frequently?
- b) Do you wear clean underwear?
- c) Do you keep your face, hands, ears, nails clean?
- d) Do you sleep with windows open?
- e) Do you brush your teeth daily?
- f) Do you drink plenty of water?
- g) Do you get physical exercise in the open air daily?
- h) Do you get plenty of sleep?

II. Dependableness

1. General

- a) Do you, if employed, report on time, keep appointments, do more than required to do, turn in all money?

2. In the home

- a) Do you habitually tell the truth?
- b) Do you keep your promises to the members of your family?

3. In the gymnasium, on the playground

- a) Are you honest in keeping scores?

III. Attitude

1. In class

- a) Do you listen carefully to instruction?
- b) Do you keep an open mind, or are you set in your ideas?

IV. Considerateness

1. In the corridors

- a) Do you assist new pupils and strangers who need assistance?

2. In the home

- a) Do you put clothing and other belongings in place regularly?

3. Respect for property

- a) Do you put out picnic fires?
- b) Do you dispose of refuse in regular containers and otherwise clean up after a picnic?
- c) Do you pick wild flowers on public property or destroy shrubbery?

4. In class, club, and home rooms

- a) Do you show by your conduct that you have a kindly feeling toward those of different races, nationality, or religion?
- b) Do you still hold as friends those whose opinions are different from yours?
- c) Do you avoid commenting on the physical peculiarities of others?

5. On the playground

a) Do you assist younger children and those who are backward?

V. Industry

1. General

a) Do you carry projects through to completion?

VI. Co-operation

1. In the home

a) Do you work with others willingly, graciously?

b) Do you help your parents cheerfully?

c) Do you do your share of the work around the home?

2. In the gymnasium, on the playground

a) Do you, as a player, lose enthusiasm and interest when your team begins to lose?

b) Do you enter enthusiastically into teamwork?

VII. Thrift

1. Time

a) Do you work quietly so that others are not disturbed?

2. In class

a) Do you exercise care in handling schoolbooks?

b) Do you try constantly to save your supplies?

VIII. Courtesy

1. In the gymnasium, on the playground

a) Do you accept decisions of officials cheerfully?

2. In the home

a) Do you show politeness and kindness to parents, brothers, and sisters?

b) Do you observe polite table manners?

(1) Wait your turn to be served?

(2) Say "please" and "thank you"?

(3) Help carry on the conversation?

(4) Remain seated until others have finished?

c) Do you make visitors feel welcome?

3. On the bus

a) Do you assist those needing help?

(1) Elderly people?

(2) Persons with luggage?

(3) Ladies with children?

4. In the class, club, home rooms

a) Do you interrupt when another is speaking?

5. In the corridors

a) Do you obey traffic rules?

6. In the auditorium

a) Do you listen quietly and attentively?

IX. Initiative**1. In the home**

- a) Do you do the things you know you should do without being told to do them?

2. In class

- a) Do you find ways to overcome difficulties?

A PHILOSOPHY OF CONDUCT EDUCATION

Of what value is it to know what certain groups think are important trait actions? To those who hold that all conduct must be "caught and not taught," this list will be of little, if any, service. To those, however, who believe that conduct must be taught as well as caught, the list may have practical use.

There are clearly two phases of the problem of securing desired responses to conduct problems: (1) Children must know what conduct is expected of them. (2) They must actually want to do the thing that is expected of them. Clearly, the spirit of the school, the home, and other environmental contacts have a bearing on the formation of attitudes. Schools with friendly and sympathetic teachers, with worthy ideals and traditions are agencies for the development of worthy, integrated personalities, with high ideals of service and responsibility. The contribution which the social environment of the school can make—indeed, must make—to well-developed characters and socially-minded attitudes is too obvious to need emphasis here.

It does not follow, however, that children should not, at times, be told what acts are expected of them and what are not. Indeed, any one at all familiar with the nature of children appreciates the necessity of calling attention repeatedly to certain acts. It is obvious, of course, that conduct, taught consciously and directly, can readily be emphasized to the point where children become self-conscious, over-conscious of their good deeds, priggish. Indeed, there is a real danger that this result may be brought about by any direct, pupil-conscious attack on conduct as such. Nevertheless, children must know what conduct is expected of them; they must in some way be given this information. Should the school trust to chance that they will get it incidentally in wholesome surroundings which the school provides?

The fact that pupils may be made over-conscious of conduct does not necessarily imply that direct consideration to behavior may not be given in moderation and without overemphasis. Indeed, the theory back of the study here reported implies the need of emphasis on two factors in securing desired conduct, namely, knowledge and attitudes. If it is agreed that some emphasis should be given to the direct teaching of conduct, then it must follow that there must be specific outcomes, or trait actions, to teach. Who is to decide what these shall be? In the last analysis, the social group, society itself, must make this decision. The writer went to teachers of both elementary and secondary schools, to principals and superintendents of schools, and to frontier thinkers in the field of citizenship and character education. This procedure was followed on the theory that, if the judgments of the members of these various groups on the importance or the unimportance of individual trait actions showed any agreement, those trait actions which were rated uniformly high should be chosen for direct emphasis in junior high school home rooms. The trait actions on which there was agreement as to unimportance should be eliminated. If pupils agree with teachers, administrators, and experts, it is worth while to discover the fact. If they disagree, those items on which there is disagreement are worthy of note.

APPLICATIONS

An application of this study is implied in the preceding section. A suggested effective use is to introduce a trait by reading aloud some story¹ which will dramatize the trait and arouse in the pupils a desirable emotional attitude toward it. This plan will establish the trait as an ideal. When a favorable attitude and a dynamic, personal reaction to the trait have been established, the trait actions suggested in this study may be introduced and discussed by whatever method the teacher may find effective. Pupils may be encouraged to suggest others.

In order that the matter of behavior as a phase of good citizenship may be kept before pupils and their parents in the writer's

¹ Such stories as are found in the following books suggest the types adapted to this purpose: (a) Vernon Jones, *What Would You Have Done?* Boston: Ginn & Co., 1931. (b) W. W. Charters, Mabel F. Rice, and E. W. Beck, *Conduct Problems*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1931.

school, these ten main traits, under which the trait actions have been classified, are used on a report card, which is reproduced below.

**REPORT CARD FOR RATING PUPILS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
ON TEN TRAITS ON THE BASIS OF TRAIT ACTIONS**

Success in life is largely dependent upon personal habits. "What we are" is more important than "what we know." No special ability is required to achieve these traits. They are ideals which may be reached by anyone who wishes to attain them and is willing to try.

SOCIAL HABITS	WORK HABITS
COURTESY	INDUSTRY
Is habitually kind	Carries projects through to completion
Is friendly	Is earnest and constant in application
Is well mannered	to lessons
CO-OPERATION	Has good work habits
Participates in worthy group activities	
Subordinates self to group	
Is sportsmanlike in conduct	
DEPENDABILITY	INITIATIVE
Is habitually truthful and honest	Starts something new without help
Assumes responsibility willingly	Finds ways to overcome difficulties
Is prompt in meeting appointments and obligations	Does more than required to do
CONSIDERATENESS	ACCURACY AND NEATNESS
Respects rules and authority	Follows directions carefully
Respects property	Expresses ideas accurately and clearly
Is thoughtful and tolerant of others	Exercises care in written work
HEALTH	THRIFT
Is neat and clean in person	Uses time wisely
Habitually assumes good posture	Habitually saves and spends money wisely
Practices health rules regularly	Conerves property and supplies
	ATTITUDE
	Gives careful attention
	Takes an interest in his work
	Shows willingness to do assigned work

MARKS: 1, outstanding; 2, above average; 3, average; 4, below average; 5, much room for improvement.

It cannot be denied that several of these traits have both social and individual implications. However, the statements under each trait imply a major emphasis to the heading under which it has been classified. At intervals each pupil may be given a rating in each of the two major classes of habits.

There appears to be as much justification for keeping parents informed concerning the social habits and the work habits of their children as for keeping them informed concerning the children's achievement in any particular subject. As a matter of fact, observa-

tion confirms the conviction that parents are vastly more interested in knowing that their children are forming worthy social and work habits than in knowing that the children are mastering Latin, algebra, or any other particular subject of study. As for the reliability of the ratings, it may be said that marks which teachers give in these habits are probably as reliable as are marks given in any school subject. The marks are based on objectively stated trait actions. Teachers may be guided, too, by pupils' self-ratings on the same habits. For all practical purposes, these marks serve a worthy purpose because pupils do work for marks, for honors, or for rewards. Teachers and parents may be credited or blamed for creating this attitude on the part of children. Since children do their best in school subjects in order to receive high marks, it appears no less desirable that they do their best to achieve approved social and work habits in order to secure high marks. After all, it is the formation of habits which is desired—habits making for adjustment to the social group with which children must mingle. If these habits are formed as a result of a desire to receive high ratings, they are no less truly habits. The writer's observation over a period of three years confirms the judgment that direct emphasis on conduct and systematic reports to parents serve to improve the pupils' conduct to a very marked degree.

In conclusion, it should be emphasized that much common sense and good judgment are needed to use the materials which this study supplies. If overemphasized or formalized, the use of these materials may well do more harm than good. No direct teaching or rating of conduct is a substitute for a wholesome, happy, school environment which is conducive to the formation of worthy social and work habits. For those who are convinced that conduct problems need some direct, pupil-conscious emphasis, this list of traits and trait actions, together with the suggestions for its use, may be helpful.

REMEDIATION OF COLLEGE FRESHMEN IN GRAMMATICAL USAGE

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The purpose of this article is to report the procedures utilized and the results attained with college Freshmen in a remedial project in sentence structure. Although the study was made with students at the Freshman level in college, the procedure followed and reported should be applicable at both high-school and college levels. The remedial work was administered on an individual basis. The average amount of time devoted to the project varied from four to ten hours according to the needs of the students concerned.

During their first week in Miami University in the autumn of 1930 346 Freshmen were given the Guiler-Henry Preliminary Diagnostic Test in Grammatical Usage. By means of this test it was possible both to discover the students weak in grammar and to identify their individual weaknesses. The test covers forty-five principles of grammatical usage, the application of each, with two exceptions, being measured two or more times. Twenty of the principles relate to the use of verbs; eighteen, to the use of pronouns; four, to the use of modifiers; and three, to the use of adjectives and adverbs. Each test item has a value of one point, and the highest possible score is ninety-seven points. The test is scored on the basis of the number of items answered correctly minus the number of items answered incorrectly. The scores of the 346 Freshmen tested in the preliminary survey are shown in Table I.

A comparison of Table I with the standards presented in Table II shows that the college Freshmen varied greatly with respect to their ability to recognize the grammatical correctness or incorrectness of sentences. The scores ranged from 0 to 75. This range of scores represents a spread in achievement of at least six grades. Fourteen students exceeded the median standard for college Sophomores; on the other hand, a large number manifested outstanding weakness. Thir-

ty-seven per cent of the college Freshmen did not attain the median standard for high-school Seniors, and more than 5 per cent of the college Freshmen fell below the median standard for Grade VIII.

A program of remediation was organized for the 198 students who fell below a score of 43 on the preliminary test. Of this number, 35

TABLE I

DISTRIBUTION OF 346 COLLEGE FRESHMEN ACCORDING TO SCORES ON
PRELIMINARY TEST IN GRAMMATICAL USAGE

Test Score	Number of Pupils	Test Score	Number of Pupils
72-75.....	5	24-27.....	27
68-71.....	9	20-23.....	26
64-67.....	7	16-19.....	10
60-63.....	16	12-15.....	13
56-59.....	24	8-11.....	9
52-55.....	23	4-7.....	7
48-51.....	21	0-3.....	16
44-47.....	27	Total.....	346
40-43.....	29	Median score*.....	39.3
36-39.....	32	Mean score*.....	37.5
32-35.....	25		
28-31.....	20		

* Derived from ungrouped data.

TABLE II

GRADE STANDARDS FOR GUILER-HENRY PRELIMINARY
DIAGNOSTIC TEST IN GRAMMATICAL USAGE

Educational Level	Median Score
College Sophomore.....	68.9
College Freshman.....	39.5
Grade XII.....	31.7
Grade XI.....	27.7
Grade X.....	19.2
Grade IX.....	10.9
Grade VIII.....	6.8

withdrew from college before the final test was given; hence, complete data were available for only 163 students. It is the latter group, who will hereafter be referred to as "remedial students," with whom the report from this point on is concerned.

The remedial work was organized on an individual and self-administering basis. An attempt was made to render each remedial

student conscious of his particular weaknesses by an analysis of his own test paper. Furthermore, each weak student was encouraged to keep a record of his own difficulties after these had been identified. Individual records of the shortcomings of ten individual students revealed through this method of analysis are presented in Table III.

An analysis of the error data exhibited in this table shows a number of significant facts. One fact is that difficulties in grammar are individual and specific. This point is revealed in a number of ways. First, the students varied greatly in the number of difficulties encountered. In verb usage one student encountered difficulty in applying only eight principles, while each of two other students experienced difficulty in applying thirteen principles. In pronoun usage one student encountered difficulty in applying only seven principles, while another student experienced difficulty in applying sixteen principles. Second, the principles of grammatical usage the application of which caused difficulty for the same number of students did not always involve the same individuals. Thus, while six students encountered difficulty in the application of each of Principles 3 and 7 in the use of verbs, only three of the same students made errors in the application of both principles. Third, the students who made the same number of errors did not always make the same errors. Thus, while Students 48 and 96 each made errors in the application of ten principles of verb usage, they made errors in the application of only three of the same principles.

The marked variation in the extent to which the forty-five principles of grammatical usage had been mastered by the remedial students constitutes a second revelation of the data exhibited in Table III. This statement is well substantiated by the error-quotient data for the preliminary test. The error quotient in each case was found by dividing the number of errors made in applying a particular principle by the number of chances for making errors in the application of that principle. The fact that the error quotient considers frequency of mistakes with relation to the number of opportunities for making mistakes renders it a much more valid and significant measure of the seriousness of error than does a mere count of errors.

The error quotients for the preliminary test show that the error

TABLE III

PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL USAGE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED BY 10 REMEDIAL STUDENTS AND ERROR QUOTIENTS ON PRELIMINARY AND FINAL TESTS OF 163 REMEDIAL STUDENTS

PRINCIPLE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED	STUDENT										ERROR QUOTIENT	
	16	32	48	64	80	96	112	128	144	160	Pre- test	Final Test
Verb Usage												
1. The present participle should be used only to denote an action consistent with the time of action of the main verb.	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.730	.156
2. General truths, or statements which are still true, are put in the present tense.	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	.653	.221
3. A collective noun is singular when considered as a whole and plural when its parts are thought of separately.	X	X	X	X	X	X598	.074
4. Infinitives are present unless they represent an action earlier than that of the main verb.	X	X	X	X	X	X	.574	.098
5. The tense of the verb in the principal clause governs the tense of the verb in the dependent clause.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.528	.049
6. The subjunctive mode is used to express a condition highly improbable or actually contrary to fact.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X509	.077
7. Modifying phrases like "as well as," "accompanied by," "together with," etc., do not affect the number of the subject they modify.	X	X	X	X	X	.466	.037
8. A compound subject made up of two singular nouns joined by "or" or "nor" is followed by a singular verb.	X	X	X	X	X	X	.433	.064
9. The verb in a relative clause agrees in number with the antecedent of the pronoun introducing the clause.	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.371	.058
10. The following words are followed by singular verbs: "each," "every," "everyone," "everybody," "any," "anyone," "any-	X	X	X	X

TABLE III—Continued

PRINCIPLE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED	STUDENT										ERROR QUOTIENT	
	16	32	48	64	80	96	112	128	144	160	Pre- test	Final Test
Verb Usage (<i>Continued</i>)												
10.—Continued body," "either," "neither," "no one," "nobody," "many a one," "someone," "somebody," "a person," "one," and "none" (if the meaning is individual).....	X	X	X	X	.343 .037
11. The verb agrees in number with its subject in spite of the num- ber of the nouns which inter- vene	X	X	.	.	.	X	X	X	X	X	.328 .018	
12. A compound subject made up of both singular and plural nouns is followed by a verb which agrees in number with the nearer noun.....	.	.	X	.	X	.	X	X	.	.	.273 .178	
13. The following nouns are al- ways considered plural: "oats," "riches," "scissors," "proceeds," "eaves," "trousers," "pincers," "shears," "links" (golf), "an- imals," "nuptials".....	X	.	X	X	X	.	.	.	X	X	.255 .040	
14. The subjunctive mode is used to express a wish or a regret.....	X	X	X	X	X	.	.218 .034	
15. The present, past, and past participle forms of the verb (principal parts) must be care- fully distinguished.....	.	X	.	X	X	X	X	.	X	X	.211 .037	
16. The following nouns, although plural in form, are usually considered singular: "athlet- ics," "politics," "physics," "news," "mathematics," "gal- lows".....	.	.	.	X	.	.	X184 .003	
17. The verb of a sentence agrees in number with its subject, not with its predicate noun	X	X	.	.135 .028	
18. The subject of a sentence and its verb must agree in person.....	X	.	.	.	X098 .009	
19. The verb following the expletive "there" agrees in number with the noun which follows.....	X	.	.095 .040	
20. A compound subject made up of two nouns joined by "and" is followed by a plural verb.....	.	X	X083 .058	
Total.....	12	8	10	9	11	10	11	11	13	13	.	.
Average.....											.354	.066

TABLE III—*Continued*

PRINCIPLE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED	STUDENT										ERROR QUOTIENT	
	16	32	48	64	80	96	112	128	144	160	Pre- test	Final Test
Pronoun Usage												
1. "Than whom" is an acceptable idiom.....	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	.877	.043
2. A pronoun must have only one antecedent to which it might seem to refer.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.810	.095
3. The antecedent of a reference pronoun must be expressed and not inferred or understood.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.788	.080
4. The first sentence of a piece of writing is independent of its title	X	...	X	X	...	X	...	X	X	X	.693	.043
5. The possessive case is used for a noun or a pronoun modifying a gerund.....	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.521	.156
6. Reference pronouns like "this," "that," "which," and "it" should be used to refer to a single definite word as an antecedent and not to a clause or an idea.....	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	.521	.055
7. The possessive case should indicate possession, not the object of an action.....	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.503	.107
8. Pronouns referring to "each," "every," etc., must be singular	...	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.466	.025
9. The reference pronoun agrees in number with the nearest noun when the antecedent is made up of a singular and a plural noun joined by "or" or "nor".....	X	X	X	X	...	X	...	X	...	X	.439	.119
10. The nominative case should be used: (a) for the subject of a verb; (b) for the predicate noun after "is," "was," etc.; (c) after the gerund "being"; (d) after such expressions as "appears to be," "seems to be," "was thought to be," etc.....	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.363	.084
11. Two pronouns of different gender must be used to refer to two antecedents of different gender if the antecedents are considered individually.....	...	X	...	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	.347	.040
12. The case of a noun or pronoun following "than" or "as" is determined by its use in the clause expressed in full.....	X	...	X	X	X	X	.343	.144

TABLE III—*Continued*

PRINCIPLE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED	STUDENT										ERROR QUOTIENT	
	16	32	48	64	80	96	112	128	144	160	Pre- test	Final Test
Pronoun Usage (<i>Continued</i>)												
13. A word used in apposition agrees in case with its antecedent.....	X	X	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	.328	.114
14. The objective case should be used: (a) for the object of a verb, (b) for the object of a preposition, (c) for the subject of an infinitive, (d) for the objective complement of an infinitive.....	...	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	.301	.123
15. A pronoun must agree in person with its antecedent.....	X	X	X	...	X169	.021
16. A singular reference pronoun is required to refer to an antecedent made up of two singular nouns joined by "or," "nor," or "but".....	...	X	...	X	...	X	X169	.077
17. A reference pronoun must agree in number with its antecedent in spite of the number of the nouns which intervene.....	X	...	X138	.061
18. A collective noun requires a singular reference pronoun when it is considered as a whole, and a plural reference pronoun when the parts are considered separately.....	X113	.046
Total.....	II	13	9	7	13	11	14	12	14	16
Average.....											.438	.080
Attachment of Modifiers												
1. A gerund phrase must clearly attach itself to the noun or pronoun which it modifies.....	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.693	.190
2. An infinitive phrase must clearly attach itself to the noun or pronoun which it modifies.....	X	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	.457	.104
3. An elliptical clause must clearly attach itself to the noun or pronoun which it modifies.....	...	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	.325	.028
4. A participle must clearly attach itself to the noun or pronoun which it modifies	X	X	...	X	X	X	X	.245	.153
Total.....	2	3	3	2	3	4	2	3	4	4
Average.....											.430	.119

TABLE III—Continued

PRINCIPLE WITH WHICH DIFFICULTY WAS ENCOUNTERED	STUDENT										ERROR QUOTIENT
	16	32	48	64	80	96	112	128	144	160	
Use of Adjectives and Adverbs											
1. Demonstrative adjectives and other modifiers must agree in number with the nouns or pronouns they modify.....	X		X			X	X		X	.239	.071
2. An adjective modifies only a noun or its equivalent.....		X			X			X	X	.163	.052
3. An adverb modifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.....		X	X			X	X			.127	.037
Total.....	0	1	2	1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Average.....											.176 .053

hazards involved in the application of Principle 1 in verb usage, as compared with the error hazards involved in applying other principles of verb usage, were approximately of the following ratios: with Principle 9, two to one; with Principle 13, three to one; with Principle 16, four to one; with Principle 19, eight to one; and with Principle 20, nine to one.

The self-teaching and the individualization of the follow-up work were made possible through the use of a student's workbook in grammatical usage¹ in which the material is so organized as to make it possible for each student to secure teaching and practice on the particular items causing him difficulty. The work was well motivated by the fact that each student was made to realize that mastery was his individual responsibility. Regular class periods were scheduled for the fifty weakest members of the remedial group. During the class hour the students were encouraged to ask the teacher for help in learning to apply any principle of grammatical usage which was not made clear by the self-teaching material in the workbook. The remaining students in the remedial group did their work outside the class. They were free, however, to come to the office of the direc-

¹ Walter S. Guiler and Ralph L. Henry, *Remedial English: A Plan for Individualizing Study*, pp. 113-84. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1931.

tor of remedial instruction whenever they felt in need of help. The practice exercises were scored by the students themselves. Correction keys were made available for this purpose whenever the students had exercises to score.

The amount of improvement resulting from the remedial work was measured by the Guiler-Henry Retest in Grammatical Usage. This test is the equivalent of the preliminary test in content and in difficulty. The passing score on the retest was made several points higher than that on the preliminary test in order that there might be a counterbalance for the loss of ability which is likely to occur after intensive study and practice have ceased. If a student failed to pass the retest, he was required to work on the unit until he could give satisfactory evidence that mastery had been attained.

The amount of improvement made is shown by Table IV and the last two columns of Table III. A study of the data contained in these tables shows that marked improvement in ability to apply principles of grammatical usage was made by the 163 remedial students. This statement is well supported by two types of test data. First, the average student score was increased from 26.8 in the initial test to 81.4 in the final test. Interpreted in terms of the grade standards given in Table II, this gain in scores means that the average achievement of the 163 remedial students was raised from less than eleventh-grade ability to a standard that is far above that attained by the typical college Sophomore. When individual scores are considered, it is found that all the students receiving remedial instruction attained the standard for their grade in the final test; in fact, the lowest score made by any of the remedial students in the final test was several points higher than the mean score for college Sophomores. Second, the error quotients in the final test were much lower than those in the initial test, the average error quotient being reduced from .383 to .075. On the various phases of the unit in grammatical usage the average error quotient was reduced from pretest to retest as follows: from .354 to .066 on principles governing the use of verbs, from .438 to .080 on principles governing the use of pronouns, from .430 to .119 on principles governing the attachment of modifiers, and from .176 to .053 on principles governing the use of adjectives and adverbs. The largest average error quotient in the initial test was found in connection with the principles governing

pronoun usage and in the final test in connection with the attachment of modifiers. The smallest average error quotient in both the initial and the final test was found in connection with the principles governing the use of adjectives and adverbs.

Another fact revealed by analysis of the retest data is that learning to apply certain principles of grammatical usage is much more difficult than learning to apply other principles.

TABLE IV
DISTRIBUTION OF 163 REMEDIAL STUDENTS ACCORDING TO
SCORES MADE ON PRELIMINARY AND FINAL TESTS
IN GRAMMATICAL USAGE

SCORE	NUMBER OF PUPILS	
	Preliminary Test	Final Test
96-97.....	0	4
92-95.....	0	7
88-91.....	0	22
84-87.....	0	24
80-83.....	0	30
76-79.....	0	28
72-75.....	0	48
40-43.....	13	0
36-39.....	27	0
32-35.....	23	0
28-31.....	17	0
24-27.....	26	0
20-23.....	20	0
16-19.....	9	0
12-15.....	10	0
8-11.....	7	0
4-7.....	3	0
0-3.....	8	0
Total.....	163	163
Median score*.....	28.8	81.8
Mean score*.....	26.8	81.4

* Derived from ungrouped data.

cult than learning to apply other principles. Reference to Table III, for example, shows that the error quotients for the final test were above .15 for three of the twenty principles of verb usage (Principles 1, 2, and 12); on the other hand, the error quotients were below .01 for two of the twenty principles (Principles 16 and 18).

The following summary and concluding statements seem justified by the data presented.

1. Ability in grammatical usage is a composite of abilities to apply a large number of specific principles in the determination of the grammatical correctness of sentences. For this reason learners may be expected to encounter difficulty in the application of one or more of these principles.

2. The college Freshmen included in this study varied greatly in their mastery of the field and in their mastery of specific principles. The score of the best student in the preliminary test was many times that of the poorest student. This difference in scores represents a range of at least six grades in achievement.

3. Several of the students manifested outstanding ability in grammatical usage. Of the 346 students included in the preliminary survey, fourteen made scores equal to or exceeding the norm for college Sophomores, and 161 students, or 47 per cent, attained scores which were higher than the median score for college Freshmen.

4. Many of the students exhibited marked weakness in ability to criticize the grammatical correctness of sentences. More than 15 per cent of the students fell below the tenth-grade standard in the preliminary test, and more than 5 per cent did not attain the eighth-grade standard.

5. Comparatively few principles of grammatical usage offered difficulty for any large proportion of the students. The error-quotient data for the preliminary test indicate that less than one-third of the forty-five principles caused difficulty for as many as one-half of the students.

6. The students manifested marked individuality in the types of errors that were made. This fact seems to indicate a distinct need for individualized remedial instruction.

7. Learning to apply certain principles of grammatical usage seems to be much more difficult than learning to apply other principles.

8. Marked improvement in ability to use discourse that is grammatically correct may be expected when a remedial program (1) discovers the specific principles the application of which is difficult for the group and for individuals and (2) provides self-teaching and practice materials of types definitely suited to individual needs.

ADMINISTRATIVE PRACTICES IN SIX-YEAR SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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THE PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES OF THE INVESTIGATION

The last decade has witnessed a phenomenal development of the six-year secondary school. This new type of organization, usually including Grades VII-XII, has brought many urgent problems in secondary education. The purpose of the study here summarized was to determine the practicability of present administrative practices in the six-year secondary school. Two tests of practicability were used: (1) present administrative practices in six-year secondary schools and (2) competent current opinion as to desirable administrative practices in the six-year school. Data were obtained by the use of questionnaires. The limitations of the questionnaire as a research technique are well recognized, but a battery of questionnaires focused from different angles on the same major problem reveals trends which are significant.

In the first phase of the study a "practice" questionnaire was answered by fifty-four principals of six-year high schools in the states of New York and Pennsylvania. The mean number of pupils enrolled in these 54 schools was 699.9, and the range of enrolment was from 100 to 2,713 pupils. The mean number of classroom teachers was 28.18; the range, from 6 to 102. The mean age of the six-year organization was 7.08 years; the range, from less than 1 to 20 years.

In the second phase of the study an "opinion" questionnaire was administered to forty-eight principals of six-year high schools and twenty-nine city superintendents of schools in New York and Pennsylvania and to twenty-nine leading professors of secondary education in the United States. The present report considers the practices reported by the principals and composite opinion as in-

dicated by the three professional groups. Lack of space prohibits itemized inter-comparisons among the three professional groups involved. General statements of the relation of opinion to practice and statements of comparative opinion among the three groups are given.

FINDINGS

Layout of plant.—The layouts of the school plants for accommodating junior high school and senior high school pupils show no uniformity. Fifty per cent of these schools operate with no physical separation between the junior and the senior divisions. In 17 per cent of the schools the divisions are located on separate floors of the same building. In a similar percentage of cases the two divisions are located in different wings of the same building. In three of the schools the two divisions are located in separate buildings. In two cases one division uses the building in the forenoon and the other division in the afternoon. The number of the respondents favoring certain physical arrangements are as follows: the two divisions in the same building, 34; the two divisions in separate wings, 39; on separate floors, 32; no separation, 22.

Internal organization.—The fifty-four schools show little variation in the simple elements of routine organization. Eighty-two per cent of the schools include Grades VII, VIII, and IX in the junior division, while 11 per cent include only Grades VII and VIII. Four schools did not report. The average class size in the junior division is 31.2 pupils; in the senior division, 27.8 pupils. The majority of the schools have a six-period day in both the junior and the senior divisions. Opinion as to the optimum number of periods corresponds closely with present practice. The three class periods of greatest frequency are sixty, fifty-five, and forty-five minutes in length. Opinion favors the sixty-minute period for both the junior and the senior divisions.

Organization of instruction.—Departmentalization of instruction is the common practice in all grades of these schools. Only four of the schools do not have complete departmentalization in Grades VII and VIII. Strictly speaking, departmentalization means that each teacher teaches in only one subject field, but the principals probably did not interpret the term in this rigid sense. Approximately two-

thirds of all respondents favor complete departmentalization in Grade VII, and three-fourths favor this plan in Grade VIII. The professors of secondary education are almost unanimously in favor of partial departmentalization in Grades VII and VIII.

Homogeneous grouping is practiced in the junior division by thirty-four schools; in the senior division, by twenty schools. Seventy-seven per cent of the opinions favor homogeneous grouping in the junior division and 72 per cent in the senior division.

Forty-one schools use supervised study in the junior division; thirty-five schools, in the senior division. Ninety-seven per cent of the opinions favor supervised study in the junior division and 85 per cent in the senior division. Only twenty schools give greater emphasis to supervised study in Grade VII than in Grade IX. The opinions on this item favor exactly the opposite procedure, 65 per cent favoring greater emphasis in Grade VII than in Grade IX.

Plan of promotion.—Promotion by subject is a well-recognized procedure. Only fourteen schools do not promote by subject in Grade VII and ten in Grade VIII. Two schools do not promote by subject in Grades IX and X. Seventy-five per cent of the opinions favor promotion by subject in Grade VII, 84 per cent in Grade VIII, and 97 per cent in Grade IX.

Teachers.—The tendency toward equivalent teacher preparation for the two divisions is evident. Fourteen schools require higher academic preparation for teachers in the senior division. Eight schools require higher professional preparation for teachers in the senior division. Opinion on this item is closely in accord with practice. Eighty-two per cent of the respondents do not favor higher academic requirements, and 95 per cent do not favor higher professional requirements for the senior division.

Fifty per cent of these schools classify teachers as belonging distinctly to the junior or the senior division. Eighty-five per cent of the respondents expressing opinions are, however, distinctly opposed to such classification.

Forty schools have the same salary schedules for both divisions. Ninety-four per cent of the opinions favor the same salary schedule. Principals' opinions are about equally divided as to the comparative "dignity" of teaching in the two divisions as observed in their

schools. Opinion is almost unanimous in the belief that no distinction in "dignity" should exist between the two divisions.

Emphasis in supervision.—Principals report an unequal distribution of time in supervision of the two divisions. Twenty-six report that more time is given the junior division; twenty-four, the same amount of time; and one, less time. Fifty-seven per cent of the principals consider that the junior division should have more time for supervision. Seventy-seven per cent of the respondents regard supervision as no more difficult in a six-year school than in secondary schools of other types.

Marking.—In general, these schools employ the same marking system for both divisions. Only seven schools report separate marking systems in the two divisions. Ninety-three per cent of the opinions favor the same marking system for both divisions. No schools, in practice, send the report card to parents more frequently in the junior division than in the senior division, although 18 per cent of the opinions favor such a difference.

The extra-curriculum and guidance.—The data reveal a constructive effort to integrate the extra-curriculum or social activities of the six-year secondary school. Seventy-five per cent of those giving opinions consider that guidance can be carried on more effectively in the six-year school than in organizations of other types. Thirty-six schools report greater emphasis on guidance in the junior division than in the senior division. Opinion, however, is approximately evenly divided on the problem of relative emphasis in the two divisions. Thirteen schools report separate guidance counselors for the two divisions. The majority of the opinions, approximately 60 per cent, oppose separate guidance counselors.

Home room and assembly.—All the schools assign pupils to home rooms in both divisions according to grades. Ninety-two per cent of the opinions favor assignment according to grade in the junior division and 89 per cent in the senior division. All schools have formal home-room organizations in the junior division. Forty-two schools have formal home-room organizations in the senior division. Ninety per cent of the opinions favor formal home-room organization in the junior division and 88 per cent in the senior division. Each school has some type of assembly program. Thirty schools report that

their auditoriums are large enough to accommodate both the junior and the senior divisions at one time. Of these thirty schools, fifteen hold separate division assemblies. Seventy-five per cent of the opinions favor separate assemblies.

Common use of facilities.—Pupils in both divisions in these schools commonly use the same library, lunchroom, and laboratory facilities. Only five schools report that the same library is not used by pupils in both divisions. Eighteen schools report that the laboratories are not used by pupils in both divisions. It is possible that in some of these eighteen schools no laboratory science is given in the junior division. Only ten schools report separate lunchroom periods for the two divisions. Fifty-four per cent of the opinions favor separate lunchroom periods.

Graduation.—Both practice and competent opinion agree that graduation from the junior division should not be stressed as an end goal. Only eleven schools emphasize the importance of graduation from the junior division. Ninety per cent of the opinions oppose such emphasis. Only six schools report formal graduation exercises; three, informal exercises. Opinion on this subject is divided as follows: favoring no exercises, 62 per cent; favoring informal exercises, 31 per cent; favoring formal exercises, 2 per cent; favoring promotion exercises, 5 per cent. Only eight schools give diplomas to the graduates of the junior division. Eighty per cent of the respondents oppose the granting of diplomas to junior-division pupils.

CONCLUDING COMMENT

A general impression given by the evidence reported concerning the administration of six-year secondary schools is that practice leans heavily toward similarity at the junior and the senior high school levels and makes for integration of the full period represented. Opinion also appears to lean in the same direction, except that there is some preponderance of preference for partial separation of pupils at the two levels within the single plant.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE EXTRA-CURRICULUM¹

PAUL W. TERRY
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This list presents the second of the series of selected references on the extra-curriculum published annually in the *School Review*. The first list of references covered the materials published in 1932. These two lists of selected references followed the three annual "Summaries of Investigations of Extra-Curriculum Activities" in 1929, 1930, and 1931, which also appeared in the *School Review*. The present list includes three professional books and fifty-two magazine articles, bulletins, and monographs.

The attention of those who are especially interested in the field of extra-curriculum activities should be called to the publication of a monthly magazine entitled *School Activities: The National Extracurricular Magazine*,² the first number of which appeared in September, 1929. The contents of the magazine include editorials, news notes and comments, stunts and entertainment features, games for groups, comedy cues, and a book shelf, in addition to brief articles on supervisory problems and different types of activities, all of which are designed to be of immediate and practical value to teachers and principals actively in charge of student groups.

266. *Abstracts of Masters' Theses in Education*. Northwestern University Contributions to Education, School of Education Series, No. 10. Evanston, Illinois: School of Education, Northwestern University, 1933.

The following four theses, as abstracted by graduate students, relate to extra-curriculum activities: Traugott Rohner, "Practices in the Organization and Direction of High School Bands and Orchestras" (1932), pp. 107-9; Martin C.

¹ See also Item 527 in the list of selected references appearing in the December, 1933, number of the *School Review*, Item 574 in the December, 1933, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, Item 52 in the February, 1934, number of the *Elementary School Journal*, and Item 259 in the March, 1934, number of the *School Review*.

² Published by the School Activities Publishing Co., 1013 West Sixth Street, Topeka, Kansas, C. R. Van Nice, editor, at the subscription price of \$1.50 a year.

- Rafsol, "Status of High-School Bands and Orchestras" (1931), pp. 112-15; Vera Mae Ginder, "Relation of Extra-curricular Activities to Intelligence, Achievement, College Marks, and Placement" (1932), pp. 122-24; Samuel Dewey Bishop, "Relation between Participation of High-School Students in Extra-curricular Activities and Their Socio-economic Status" (1932), pp. 127-29.
267. ANDERSON, A. HELEN. "Denver Promotes Worth-while Leisure of High-School Graduates," *American School Board Journal*, LXXXVII (July, 1933), 52.
Describes the organization of the Denver Progressive Youth, Associated, consisting of graduating Seniors, to provide for them educational, recreational, cultural, vocational, and community-service activities.
268. ANNING, NORMAN. "High School Mathematics Club," *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (February, 1933), 70-76.
Valuable suggestions on the activities, the organization, and books for the library of a mathematics club.
269. "Athletics and Scholarship," *Journal of Higher Education*, IV (December, 1933), 485.
Briefly states the conclusions of a recent Doctor's thesis presented at Pennsylvania State College by John Andrew Cooper, entitled "The Effect of Participation in Athletics upon Scholarship Measured by Achievement Tests."
270. ATKINSON, HELEN M., and FLEMMING, CECILE WHITE. *Education for Constructive Social Influence through Student Organizations*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. 32.
An engaging and illuminating description of the form and activities of the different types of student organizations developed for the civic training of pupils by the highly trained faculty of the Horace Mann High School for Girls.
271. BARNES, V. W. "Why Not Change the High School Commencement Program?" *Nation's Schools*, XI (May, 1933), 21-24.
Describes the efforts made in the school at Jackson, Ohio, to introduce into commencement exercises elements of a nature significant in a democratic society.
272. BROOKS, DOROTHY V. N. "A Geology Club in a Progressive School," *School Science and Mathematics*, XXXIII (December, 1933), 990-96.
An interesting description of the organization and activities of a geology club in an intermediate school.
273. BROOM, M. E., and BRAMKAMP, JOSEPHINE DOUGLAS. "A Study of Factors Contributing to School Citizenship," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, XVII (August, 1933), 459-67.
Compares ratings of 122 seventh- and eighth-grade pupils in the rural schools of Imperial County, California, on a school-citizenship rating chart with their scores on an intelligence test and on three tests of temperament and personality.

274. BROSNE, KENNETH. "I Am an Athlete," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (November, 1933), 133-38.
The story of the experiences and the disillusionment of a high-school and college athlete.
275. BROWN, MARION. *Leadership among High School Pupils*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 559. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. viii+166.
A valuable analytical and statistical study of the characteristics, participation, progress toward leadership, and social worth of the experience of 259 pupil leaders elected over five semesters in the University High School, Oakland, California.
276. BUSSARD, DOROTHY, and MATHEWS, C. O. "First Aid for French Clubs," *Modern Language Journal*, XVII (March, 1933), 444-52.
A careful analysis, for the benefit of sponsors, of the literature of extra-curriculum activities pertaining to French clubs, together with a detailed report of the status of such clubs in twenty-six Ohio schools. Twenty-five references are listed.
277. CARY, MILES E. "Purposeful Activities in the McKinley Senior High School, Honolulu," *Education*, LIII (January, 1933), 261-68.
Describes the interrelations of the subjects of study and student activities, with a view to the attainment of their common objectives.
278. CHAMBERS, M. M. "Taxation of College Fraternities," *School and Society*, XXXVII (May 13, 1933), 626-27.
A brief digest of court decisions and state statutes concerned with the taxation of fraternities.
279. CLEM, ORLIE M., and DODGE, S. B. "The Relationship of High-School Leadership and Scholarship to Post-School Success," *Peabody Journal of Education*, X (May, 1933), 321-29.
Compares twenty-six "leaders" and thirty-three "scholars" with thirty-two graduates selected at random from the classes of 1914-15 at the Rome Free Academy, Rome, New York, with respect to fourteen items pertaining to post-school success.
280. CRUMP, IRVING. *Making the School Newspaper*. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co., 1933. Pp. x+250.
A practical handbook useful to advisers of school publications.
281. DOUGLASS, HARL R. *Abstracts of Unpublished Masters' Theses in the Field of Secondary-School Administration*. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association, No. 47. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary, 5835 Kimball Avenue), 1933.

The following theses, all of which were written at the University of Minnesota, pertain to extra-curriculum activities: Harry T. Jensen, "The Administration and Cost of Athletics and Physical Education in the Public High-Schools of South Dakota" (1930), pp. 79-81; Pearle Knight, "Club Activities in Secondary Schools" (1930), pp. 52-55; George B. Smith, "The Relation between Participation in Student Activities in High-School and in the University" (1930), pp. 55-56.

282. EICHLER, GEORGE A., and MERRILL, ROBERT R. "Can Social Leadership Be Improved by Instruction in Its Technique?" *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VII (December, 1933), 233-36.
A digest of two stimulating parallel-group studies in two Pennsylvania high schools in which the effects of instruction in leadership were measured.
283. EILAND, KATHLEEN. *Schooldays Program Book*. New York: Fitzgerald Publishing Corp. (14 East 38th Street), 1933. Pp. 154.
Contains many suggestions for different types of programs in extra-curriculum activities.
284. FAUST, RALPH M. "Pupil Self-Direction," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (September, 1933), 51-55.
An account of the purposes, the activities, and the results obtained by student government in the Kingsford Park Junior High School, Oswego, New York.
285. FERRISS, EMERY N., GAUMNITZ, W. H., and BRAMMELL, P. ROY. *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. viii+236.
In chapter viii the general characteristics, pupil participation, and administration and control of different types of extra-curriculum and related activities are treated.
286. FOLEY, R. H. "Pupil Participation," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (September, 1933), 45-47.
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287. FORBES, CLARENCE A. "Ancient Universities and Student Life," *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (March, 1933), 413-26.
An interesting description of the activities of students of ancient institutions outside the classroom, with special reference to the University of Athens.
288. FREDERICK, ROBERT W., and KINDADE, IONE. "A Survey of Extracurricular Activities," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VIII (December, 1933), 224-26.
Gives the answers of sixty-six junior high schools in New York State to fifty-three questions concerning the organization and the administration of extra-curriculum activities.

289. FRETWELL, ELBERT K. "Economy and Improvement of Extra-Curriculum Activities in Secondary Schools," *Proceedings of the Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 120-27. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 45. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (H. V. Church, Executive Secretary, 5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1933.
Sets forth briefly thirteen factors which should be given consideration in plans of economy and improvement.
290. GARRISON, K. C. "A Study of Some Factors Related to Leadership in High School," *Peabody Journal of Education*, XI (July, 1933), 11-17.
Reviews a number of previous studies of leadership and gives correlations of the scores on eight factors obtained from 201 Seniors in two high schools in Raleigh, North Carolina.
291. GAY, MAUDE CULBERTSON. "A Classical Museum in a High School," *Classical Journal*, XXVIII (April, 1933), 484-88.
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292. GIBSON, CHARLES S. "A Project in Citizenship," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (February, 1933), 351-53.
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293. GILCHRIST, ROBERT S. "An Evaluation in Terms of Pupil Participation," *Junior-Senior High School Clearing House*, VII (February, 1933), 358-63.
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Brief digests of studies in three Pennsylvania high schools which measured the improvement made on several character tests by small groups of athletic and non-athletic pupils.
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An excellent example of material on the curriculum made available to pupils by means of work in the home room.
296. HARRIS, PAUL J. "The Director and the Play," *English Journal*, XXII (October, 1933), 658-62.

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297. HARTSHORN, C. B. "A Study of Pupil Participation in Iowa High-School Government," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (September 16, 1933), 379-82.
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298. HOBBS, MABEL FOOTE. *Play Production Made Easy*. New York: National Recreation Association (315 Fourth Avenue), 1933. Pp. 72.
A manual of practical direction for the production of plays.
299. HOLLAND, MARY N. "Extra-Curriculum Activities in High Schools and Intermediate Schools in Detroit," *School Review*, XLI (December, 1933), 759-67.
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300. IDAHO STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION. *Extra-Curricular Activities for Junior and Senior High Schools*. Idaho Bulletin of Education, Vol. XVII, No. 6. Boise, Idaho: Idaho State Board of Education, 1932. Pp. 96.
A practical manual with detailed plans and suggestions for advisers of various pupil activities.
301. KAYE, ORIN W. "Why Extracurricular Activities Are Necessary in the School," *Nation's Schools*, XI (April, 1933), 17-22.
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302. LARSON, EMIL L., and BURSON, THELMA. "The Literary Society in High School," *Education*, LIII (June, 1933), 635-37.
Presents the advantages of the general "literary society" in the small school as illustrated by a society of that type in the high school at Lore City, Ohio.
303. MACPHAIL, ANDREW H. "A Comparative Study of the Quality of Academic Work Done by Fraternity and Non-Fraternity Students at Brown University," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (December 30, 1933), 873-76.
Compares the academic averages over a period of four years of one hundred pairs of fraternity and non-fraternity students matched for scholastic aptitude.
304. MANEV, CHARLES A. "The Grades of College Football Students," *School and Society*, XXXVIII (September 2, 1933), 307-8.
Compares the median marks of members of football teams with those of women and of non-football men at Transylvania College, Lexington, Kentucky, during each semester from 1921 to 1931.

305. MILSOM, ALICE K. "The Teaching of Courtesy in the Junior High School," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, VII (December, 1933), 249.
A brief digest of the effects on the pupils in three grades of three months of instruction in courtesy. The control-group technique was employed.
306. MOENCH, F. J. "High School Athletics in a Modern Educational Program," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, IV (December, 1933), 30-31, 56.
A brief survey of the progress made in athletic policies in secondary schools since 1918.
307. NELSON, FLORENCE. "High School Motor Traffic Clubs Promote Safety Education," *Nation's Schools*, XII (December, 1933), 37-40.
Presents the need for better training of the young in driving automobiles and describes the activities of several clubs.
308. REAVIS, WILLIAM C. "Interscholastic Non-athletic Activities in Selected Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XLI (June, 1933), 417-28.
Using check lists returned by 224 large and small schools throughout the country as a part of the National Survey of Secondary Education, the author reports the extent of pupil participation in thirty-two types of contests, the scholarship required of participants, provisions for coaching, sources of financial support, and membership in interscholastic associations.
309. "Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics," *North Central Association Quarterly*, VIII (June, 1933), 26-69.
Part I, by B. L. Stradley, inspection-committee chairman, gives an analysis of the findings of the committee with recommendations, made after a three-year investigation of the practices of the higher institutions belonging to the association, with reference to its eight standards for the administration of athletics. Part II of the report, by W. P. Morgan, general-committee chairman, gives a brief history of the seven years' work of the committee and an estimate of its significance.
310. ROBSON, BARBARA REID. *House Management Problems of Fraternities and Sororities*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1933. Pp. 94.
A survey of the management problems of fraternities and sororities in a considerable number of institutions and of the various forms of institutional supervision available to these organizations. Two pages of bibliography appear in an appendix.
311. ROEMER, JOSEPH. "Tendencies in the Development of Extra-Curriculum Activities," *School Review*, XLI (November, 1933), 670-74.
Describes thirteen tendencies discernible in the administration of extra-curriculum activities in the high school in spite of current disturbances in education.
312. SCHAIN, JOSEPHINE. "Girl Scouting and the New Physical Education," *Journal of Health and Physical Education*, IV (April, 1933), 7-9, 58-59.

An informing presentation of existing and potential relations between girl scouting and physical education for girls.

- 313. SMITH, ALICE K. "A Play: 'The Case of Matthew Mattix,'" *Mathematics Teacher*, XXVI (May, 1933), 286-91.
A one-act play in two scenes well worth the attention of sponsors of mathematics clubs.
- 314. SNYDER, TROY A. "What Does the Community Read in the School Paper?" *School Review*, XLI (November, 1933), 693-99.
Gives significant statistical data on the frequency with which different groups of people read the various topics of the weekly paper of the Harbor High School, Ashtabula, Ohio.
- 315. STALNAKER, JOHN M. "Attitudes toward Intercollegiate Athletics," *School and Society*, XXXVII (April 15, 1933), 499-504.
Reports the attitudes of eleven large groups of people (interested in, or connected with, the University of Minnesota) toward intercollegiate athletics as expressed on a scale developed after the methods of Thurstone.
- 316. STERN, IRENE L. "An Extra-curricular Activity Program for a Public Elementary School," *Educational Method*, XII (June, 1933), 530-43.
Works out a helpful, suggestive, and comprehensive program of activities, compactly presented in a single table, on the basis of carefully developed argument and frequent citation of authority.
- 317. TEAR, GRACE. "The Problem of Honorary Fraternities in a Teachers College," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XIX (April, 1933), 275-81.
A thoughtful and critical discussion of the value and activities of eight honorary fraternities at the Peru State Teachers College, Peru, Nebraska.
- 318. WAHLQUIST, JOHN T. "The Honor System in American Colleges and Universities," *School and Society*, XXXVII (June 10, 1933), 757-60.
A tabular presentation and discussion of prevailing practices and the extent to which the honor system is used in eighty-one institutions of different types.
- 319. WITT, WILLIAM H. "Nationwide High-School Debating," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXII (January, 1933), 13-14.
A brief account, including facts and figures, of the origin, activities, personnel, and extensive influence of the committee on debate materials and interstate co-operation of the National University Extension Association.
- 320. WOELLNER, ROBERT C. "Where Our Graduates Go," *University of Chicago Magazine*, XXV (February, 1933), 159-64.
Gives, among other things, data on participation in college extra-curriculum activities secured from questionnaires returned by almost five thousand men and women who received the Bachelor's degree at the University of Chicago from 1893 to 1930.

Educational Writings

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

On the principles of secondary education.—The literature of secondary education has recently been enriched by the publication of a new book in that field.¹ In this volume the author gives us a stimulating discussion of the current philosophy of secondary education. The style is pungent, occasionally caustic, but always interesting. The method of treatment of the issues raised is dialectic rather than statistical. Tables are sparingly employed, and these only in the more historical portions or chapters of the book. The method of treatment is chosen, presumably, on account of the fact that the author is undertaking to paint a picture of the school that *ought to be* rather than to give details regarding the school that *is*. He therefore takes the position that the philosophical principles and the desirable objectives of secondary education must be agreed on and formulated before effective effort can be applied in the direction of achieving those objectives.

The book has an analytical introduction and twenty-eight chapters. Three of these chapters describe education in other countries, primarily in England, France, and Germany; three are devoted to secondary education in America; one, to the changing curriculum; two chapters discuss the characteristics of adolescence; three are taken up with a discussion of the issues in secondary education; two deal with the functions of secondary education; one, with articulation between the administrative units; two, with curriculum principles; four, with emotionalized attitudes; two, with mores; four, with interests as liberal education; and the final chapter gives a vision of secondary education as it might be.

In the chapters on secondary education in other countries the traditional three—England, France, and Germany—are discussed. There is, however, much new material, and the picture is brought up to date. One could wish, nevertheless, that some attention had also been given to the more experimental types of secondary education that are to be found in Russia and Denmark. The treatment of adolescent characteristics does not differ much from that found in other books on the principles of secondary education. It is in his treatment of the issues and the special functions of secondary education that Professor

¹ Thomas H. Briggs, *Secondary Education*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1933. Pp. x+578. \$2.50.

Briggs makes his best contribution to contemporary educational discussion. Positing ten issues and ten special functions, the author discusses these in the light of changing social and economic conditions and seeks to lay the theoretical foundations for desirable reorganization in both the curriculum and the administrative control of American secondary schools. The attention given to administrative reorganization, however, is slight compared with the emphasis on the general theory and curriculum aspects. This point is illustrated in the chapter on articulation, where the attention given to the junior college is very slight and there is almost no consideration of recent experiments with different combinations of administrative units, such as the six-four-four plan at Pasadena, California, and the twelve-year program through the junior college at Kansas City, Missouri. This oversight may, however, be attributed to the author's primary interest in the philosophical rather than the administrative aspects of secondary education. The materials embodied in the chapters on curriculum, emotionalized attitudes, and mores have, as stated in the Introduction, appeared in previous writings of the author, but they are here placed in proper relation to a complete presentation of a matured philosophy of secondary education. There is, therefore, an essential unity of treatment, which makes the book both interesting and stimulating to read.

This book by Professor Briggs will be of particular interest to secondary-school teachers and administrators, to college teachers in the field of education, and to all persons engaged in curriculum revision at the secondary-school level.

WILLIAM MARTIN PROCTOR

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An introduction to education.—Second only in importance to emphasis on adequate support for education is emphasis on curriculum revision for instruction which shall be better integrated than that of the past. General exploratory courses in high schools, such as general science or combined mathematics, are certainly not new. Before the depression colleges too were beginning to offer general courses in various fields intended to orient students with regard to different aspects of these fields. Some orientation courses have been compilations of samples presented by different specialists of particular departments, each without much relation to the others. In some instances definite attempts have been made to integrate the samples through instruction given by a qualified person. Books intended as textbooks or for other uses in orientation courses have at times reflected the sampling stage of evolution and at times the later integration stage. A recent book¹ attempts to give an integrated view of education.

The authors aim "to develop a mind set and to provide a vantage point from which [the reader] can see in perspective the specialized treatments of method, curriculum, administration, and testing with which he will deal later" (p. v). An introductory chapter or unit deals with such matters as length of school

¹ Joseph S. Butterweck and J. Conrad Seegers, *An Orientation Course in Education*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1933. Pp. vi+392. \$2.00.

session, size of school, and equipment. Each of the other six units is divided into two to five "problems." In five problems Unit II sketches from different points of view the development of our school system: (1) descriptive—from primitive conditions through Greece, Rome, the Renaissance, and the Reformation to modern times; (2) philosophical—characterization of successive points of view dominating life, such as complacency, religion, equality of opportunity, and democratic government; (3) purpose of education—set forth in terms of religion, knowledge as power, discipline, psychology or child-study, social-civic usefulness, and liberal education; (4) influence of education on political theories, illustrated by reference to Germany, England, France, and the United States; (5) social and economic changes— influences of the Industrial Revolution and immigration. Incidentally, Unit II is one of the better units of the book.

The succeeding five units are organized on the same plan as Unit II. Unit III, "The School of Tomorrow," sketches progressive tendencies in education. The curriculum, method, society's educational obligation to the individual, and the individual's obligation to society are characteristic topics. An elementary treatment of scientific method in education and of certain aspects of measurement comprise the next unit. A unit is then devoted to "Guiding the Learner." Aspects of child-study relating to "Changing Attitude of Society" and "Some Salient Facts Regarding Child Nature" are typical considerations of the first half of the unit. The psychology of learning, as explained in terms of bonds, laws of readiness and exercise, and maxims of habit formation, characterize the second part. The third section relates to lesson-planning and the technique of teaching. Unit VI deals with problems of administration: the rôle of various governmental units, comparisons among countries, and problems of organization in elementary and secondary schools. The last unit, "The Teacher," sketches the types of duties connected with positions in teaching, administration, and supervision, and also outlines preparation needs and opportunities for service in such positions.

Each unit is introduced by a double page of pictures and by a preview intended to raise questions and to indicate the type of discussion to follow. At the end of each problem is a brief summary, followed by a list of questions and a bibliography. There is an index of eight pages.

The book is apparently intended for use in an introductory course for prospective teachers. The prospective level of teaching and the anticipated background of the students, however, are not clear. It is therefore a bit difficult to judge the appropriateness of the book. The elementary treatment can easily be grasped by beginning college students. With the previews, topic headings, summaries, and questions, such students should have no difficulty in understanding the discussion. In fact, the reviewer feels that the book's arrangement has resulted in unnecessary simplification and repetition. Even for beginners much of the discussion could be condensed and thus allow for the treatment of other important topics. The reviewer feels, for example, that beginners should be introduced to a rather comprehensive treatment of the basis of support of our school

system and to the adequacy of the possible sources of revenue which may be drawn on to support schools or other public institutions. The five or six pages devoted to this subject do not reflect its significance in American education with anything like the completeness that the three and one-half pages devoted to the Gary Plan reflect the significance of that form of school organization. Likewise, the reviewer feels that an orientation course in education should introduce the student to the field of adult education, and, if an attempt is made at inclusiveness, students should be made definitely aware of the extra-legal organizations, associations, and foundations which greatly influence American education.

The book is not comprehensive enough nor meaty enough to be used alone as a basic textbook for college students in a beginning course in education. It may, however, be used jointly with another textbook, with the addition of other units, or by supplementing the units which are presented with readings selected from the bibliography. Such supplementing was probably intended by the authors.

HAROLD H. PUNKE

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A survey of the smaller secondary schools.—A more thorough and intensive survey of the smaller secondary schools has never been made than that reported in Monograph Number 6 of the National Survey of Secondary Education.¹ The smaller high school is carefully studied from each of several very important points of view: (1) general organization and administration; (2) the administrative and teaching staff; (3) school grounds, buildings, and equipment; (4) the curriculum; (5) methods of instruction; (6) supervision of instruction and professional growth of teachers; (7) the extra-curriculum and related activities; (8) pupil accounting and guidance; and (9) extended service and community relations.

Although comprehensive, this survey fails to evaluate the product of the smaller high schools. Rather, it evaluates these schools with respect to items which are considered by the authors to be prerequisite to a good high-school education, such as length of school term, length of class period, size of school grounds, breadth of curriculum, total hours given to supervision, extent of extra-curriculum activities, and similar measures. From all apparent implications, the survey fails to recognize the fact that the objectives, as well as the media for accomplishing the objectives, of smaller secondary schools are in many cases quite different from those in large high schools. Apparently, the authors accept many existing difficulties and deficiencies as inherent in the organization, rather than resultant of the meager research in the field of the small high school.

¹ Emery N. Ferriss, W. H. Gaumnitz, and P. Roy Brammell, *The Smaller Secondary Schools*. National Survey of Secondary Education Monograph No. 6. United States Office of Education Bulletin No. 17, 1932. Pp. viii+236.

The data are tabulated with reference to two groups of schools: the unselected schools and the selected schools. Comparisons are constantly made between these two groups and between the size classifications set up within each group. The number of schools studied and the classifications according to size within each group are given in Table I (p. 2).

The data on general organization and administration indicate the existence of great variations in organization among all the schools studied. With one exception, virtually all the tangible objective means employed show, according to

TABLE I
DATA ON SCHOOLS INVESTIGATED IN SEVERAL
ENROLMENT GROUPS

Number of Pupils Enrolled	Number of Schools Studied	Average Enrolment	Average Number of Teachers
Unselected schools:			
40 or fewer.....	72	25.9	2.8
41-75.....	92	51.4	4.0
76-150.....	110	107.2	6.7
151-300.....	107	219.4	10.0
More than 300.....	124	471.7	18.5
Selected schools:			
75 or fewer.....	19	49.1	4.3
76-150.....	34	109.2	7.1
151 or more.....	56	293.3	11.5

groups, that the smaller the school, the less effective its general organization and administration.

Although the general and the professional training of both principals and teachers in the smaller secondary schools has markedly improved within the last decade, certain problems are still serious. The tenure of principals and teachers is generally unsatisfactory. A disproportionately large number of both teachers and principals receive unreasonably low salaries. In the selected schools, as a group, the teachers and the principals have significantly better training than those in the unselected schools.

Data gathered regarding school grounds, buildings, and equipment point to two major conclusions: (1) that the size of the school is an important factor in determining what the school has and (2) that in practically all items the selected schools, as a class, are superior to the unselected schools.

Facts support the conclusion that, in the main, the curriculum of the smaller secondary school has remained relatively constant. There are, however, indications of a trend toward a more modern curriculum, both of a practical and of an appreciative nature. A considerable proportion of the smaller high schools are trying out and adopting practices that represent departures from the recitation plan of teaching. Much more attention is being given to the study of teach-

ing problems in the smaller secondary schools than was given to these questions a decade ago.

Considerable attention is being given to the extra-curriculum and related activities. In general, the smaller the schools, the more limited the range of activities offered and the smaller the proportion of schools fostering each activity.

Evidence reveals that much should be done to improve pupil accounting in the smaller secondary schools. Also, generally considered, the development of adequate guidance programs appears to be one of the greatest problems of these schools. Comparatively little is being done for pupils of high-school age who are unable to attend the regular day sessions. Few part-time courses are offered by any except the larger schools. However, a great many extra-school services are being rendered by the schools and by the members of their faculties.

The entire study shows a consistent superiority of the selected schools over the unselected. This condition leads the authors to imply "that, if the selected schools are providing the facilities or carrying on the activities represented in these aspects of superiority, other schools of the same size may well be expected to do the same" (p. 234).

Another conclusion is "that size is a more important factor than selection in making for constructive differences among small schools. The obvious implication from this finding is that the very small high schools ought to be kept to as small a number as possible" (p. 235).

EARL T. PLATT

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A critical analysis of fusion social studies in the junior high school.—The book under review¹ represents a type of critical analysis which is highly valuable in any field but which educators have been inclined to slight since the era of objective studies began. Professor Wilson sets out to analyze the theory of social-studies fusion, and from the first page to the last his book presents a thorough, intelligent study, which considers fairly every phase of the question lending itself to such treatment. Some of the ideas have been presented by the author in earlier publications, but here the entire problem is set forth in a complete and satisfactory manner. The otherwise careful proofreading is marred by a confusion of the pagination and order of pages 151 and 153.

The bases of the work are a study of junior high school fusion courses, ten of the best known of which are summarized, and a study of the writings of the advocates of fusion in an attempt to determine the nature of the theory on which fusion rests. The historical background of the fusion controversy is traced, and the conclusion is drawn that the rigid subject-matter lines conceived by many advocates of fusion no longer exist and that subjects are not subject matter so much as they are points of view. The selection of functional curriculum content

¹ Howard E. Wilson, *The Fusion of Social Studies in Junior High Schools: A Critical Analysis*. Harvard Studies in Education, Vol. 21. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1933. Pp. 212. \$2.50.

is related to subject and fusion courses, with the conclusion that activity analysis does not demand fusion and "subject courses may be as adequately functionalized as may fusion courses" (p. 142). The unitary organization of subject matter under subject and fusion courses is analyzed in a similar manner, and the conclusions are reached that units on either basis are equally learnable, that they need not differ in the extent to which they facilitate correlation within units, that subject units offer greater possibilities of vertical synthesis, and that subject generalizations may be more significant than fusion learnings.

Certain other conclusions are drawn from these: that "the theory on which subject-teaching is based would seem to offer greater educational possibilities than does the fusion theory" (p. 185); that "there is no guaranty . . . that courses constructed according to the dictates of either [theory] will thereby achieve their greatest potentialities" (p. 186); that "subject courses, on the average at present, may more nearly approximate their ideal than fusion courses may" (p. 187) because of situations in teacher training and curriculum-scheduling; and that the fusion idea is serviceable in that it emphasizes concepts which subject specialists neglect and is a useful "occasional variant" from the subject approach.

Professor Wilson's conclusions are against the theory of fusion, but he does not use examples of poor fusion courses to build up a case such as an advocate might make. The author sticks to his analysis of the ideas underlying fusion and finds them wanting. His study is an honest evaluation and is exceedingly well done. It is not, however, beyond criticism. The author himself would deny that he had closed the argument. Like the advocates of fusion, Professor Wilson is stronger in his attack on the theories of others than in building up an alternative program. The type of subject that he defends is present only in part in courses now being taught; chiefly it is a theory on which they might be based. It is this theory that the author contrasts with the theory of fusion. In theory, fusion units, he finds, take a problem, force, or institution as a point of departure, while subject units take a "generalization or concept derived from specialists' consideration of certain aspects of society" (p. 165).

This definition of subjects excludes most of those with which we are familiar. History courses organized into units that are, as Wilson suggests, generalizations of Cheyney's theory of progress (which that eminent scholar calls "law in history") would be met with many of the objections that are currently raised against fusion courses. The concept of continuity of development is basic and underlies all courses in history, but most of the other "laws" do not seem particularly helpful in the state of the world today. Few historians, probably not even Cheyney himself, would defend a course organized about them. Not many of the generalizations in the field of political science are included in junior high school civics, and the community and vocational civics that Wilson classifies as a subject course would be repudiated by many, if not by most, of the experts in that field. Geography may be more fortunate. Generalizations of the type made by Wilson, if I understand him correctly, determine the organization of

the usual high-school course in economics, but few would be willing to call that an ideal course. Is not the following a fair description of the situation? The generalizations of the social-studies fields are for the most part so tentative as yet that they make a poor basis for the unit organization of content. Furthermore, generalized principles have no monopoly of experts' attention and thought, and we may be just as close to such principles if we approach society from the standpoint of institutions or of problems.

It seems too that possibly Professor Wilson, like most of the advocates of fusion, ignores one factor which might help to justify this type of organization at some grade levels. In the social-studies field we do not teach a block of subject matter and then leave it forever. Many, if not most, of the social-studies curriculums are built on three—or if we include the junior college, four—cycles, or repetitions. It is possible that there is one best approach for all cycles, but it is also possible that different approaches will prove to be significant factors in the gradation of content when we learn more about that phase of the teaching of social studies. Until experimentation can throw some light on this possibility, is it not reasonable to suppose that some variation at different levels may be desirable, if for no other reason than for the sake of securing the pupils' interest? Or must it be generalizations, or institutions, or problems at every level?

These suggestions do not involve in any substantial way Professor Wilson's searching analysis of the theories of fusion. His study may well mark a turning point in the controversy over the social-studies curriculum. Certainly it will substantially raise the level of that discussion, and no one should presume to offer an opinion regarding it without first weighing carefully the potent arguments which the author marshals.

ELMER ELLIS

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Real help on the administration and supervision of mathematics.—Seldom have the problems incident to the teaching of a single high-school subject been analyzed so painstakingly and discussed so thoroughly as have those relating to the teaching of mathematics by Professor Breslich in his recent series. The last volume¹ of this series deals with administrative and supervisory procedures. In the Preface the author says that his first volume deals "with problems arising in the choice and use of general teaching procedures and the second deals with specific teaching problems" (p. v). The reader will readily appreciate the difficulty of maintaining this distinction, and the line between teaching problems and administrative problems proves quite as impossible of definition. Each volume has chapters which another writer would have assigned to one of the other volumes, but, all in all, the division of the material into three volumes has been done with care and with satisfaction to the reader.

¹ Ernst R. Breslich, *The Administration of Mathematics in Secondary Schools*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. viii+408. \$3.00.

The fact that enough is known about the teaching of mathematics to justify the publication of such a series is an interesting commentary on the growth of education as a science. The reviewer recommends the careful reading of these three volumes to certain subject-matter experts who hold the opinion that, in order to teach mathematics successfully, one needs only a thorough command of subject matter, an attractive personality, a sympathetic attitude toward childhood, and a generous amount of common sense.

This review, however, is concerned not with the entire series but with the volume on administration. The first chapter deals with the organization of "a program of supervision which will be an effective aid to teachers" (p. 1). Much of the material applies to the supervision of any subject. The chapter closes with a bibliography of 253 titles, presented under nine headings—probably the most complete list of references bearing on supervision at the secondary-school level in print. Only twenty-eight of these references deal specifically with mathematics.

In the second chapter suggested testing programs are discussed in detail, but too much space is devoted to the presentation of results from a sample study. In chapter iii techniques are suggested for providing for individual differences, but again the author puts too much emphasis on one study of this problem. The fourth chapter presents a comprehensive discussion of textbook selection. The least helpful chapter in the book is the fifth, "Bases of Determination of the Aims and Purposes of Teaching Mathematics." The sixth chapter summarizes the principal researches into the social utility of mathematics.

Chapters vii and viii deal with the organization of instructional materials in geometry and algebra. The author distinguishes three stages of instruction in geometry and three in the study of algebra. Subject matter is then organized in terms of these stages. Three distinct levels of progress are found in the first stage of each subject.

In chapter ix the author gives a presentation of the case for correlation of mathematical subjects. While he disposes of the objections a little too easily, his specific suggestions for increasing the possibilities of correlation are more convincing than either his argument or his reports of researches. The next two chapters deal with the planning of instruction and the relation between junior and senior high school mathematics. The last chapter is devoted to a general discussion of the place of mathematics in the curriculum.

Professor Breslich writes with a thoroughness of detail approached by few. While none of the other chapter bibliographies is so extensive as that following the first chapter, all are fairly complete. Unfortunately, they contain a great many errors in authors' names. When the author describes the teaching of a certain process or unit, he lists the "teaching steps" involved. His lists of objectives are unusually complete, and he is constantly urging teachers to give this same attention to the minutiae of learning in the mathematics class. The results of scientific investigation are referred to frequently, but too often without specific citation. Adaptation to pupil needs—finding out where the class is—is

constantly emphasized. Finally, the author seems to think that the history of the development of mathematics throws much light on how the individual learns the subject. This idea seems to the reviewer a doubtful thesis.

The most disappointing feature of the book is that it gives little help to the principal or the adviser who must answer that ever-recurring question, "Why should I take mathematics?" The very significant practical and cultural values of mathematics receive inadequate attention. The author ably discusses the administration of the same old mathematics (though correlated) but shows scant appreciation of the mathematics program which we must introduce if the school is to train people to live a satisfying and efficient life.

H. E. BENZ

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Learning Latin by reading Latin.—Dr. Michael West has said that the ideal method for gaining a reading knowledge of a foreign language should be one which combines the complete understanding (as found in the intensive method) with the rapid reading for content found in the extensive method and that these advantages may be combined by the preparation of textbooks in which the incidence of new words is so limited as not to prevent rapid reading or the formation of a direct bond ("The Problem of 'Weaning' in Reading a Foreign Language," *Modern Language Journal*, XV [April, 1931], 482). The University of Chicago Press has recently issued three little readers for first-year Latin classes¹ which seem to the reviewer to exemplify this principle. The experiment of teaching Latin by *reading Latin* without the use of paradigms or grammatical rules, which has been in progress in the Laboratory Schools of the University of Chicago, has caused considerable comment. These books, written by two teachers of Latin in the Laboratory Schools, are the fruit of several years' experience in using this method.

A New Latin Primer is the basic textbook, with the other two books designed for supplementary reading material. Each book has forty chapters of connected reading in Latin. The same vocabulary of 554 words is used in the three books, and the words were chosen on the basis of frequency in high-school Latin as determined by Gonzalez Lodge (*The Vocabulary of High School Latin*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1907). In the vocabulary lists for each lesson the relative frequency of the words is indicated. The same new words are introduced in the same chapters in each book; in this way the pupils are given much practice in repeatedly meeting new words in connected Latin reading. The words occurring most frequently in high-school Latin appear early and

¹ a) Marjorie J. Fay, *Carolus et Maria*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xii+98. \$0.70.

b) Mima Maxey, *Cornelia*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+78. \$0.70.

c) Mima Maxey and Marjorie J. Fay, *A New Latin Primer*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1933. Pp. xiv+138. \$0.90.

often in the books, while words with less frequency appear more rarely. Seventy-three words not found in Lodge's vocabulary are introduced, mostly in the first lessons, in order to present familiar situations to the pupils. The authors built their stories on modern situations but used other supplementary readers for classical background.

Evidently West's prescription for teaching English to Bengali boys works well in teaching Latin to American boys and girls; for these books, the outgrowth of experience, make use of much the same theory. The words are introduced gradually, they are repeated many times from lesson to lesson, and in the early stages the meaning of the words is often self-evident. An examination of the vocabulary in the first five lessons reveals that, of the nineteen words introduced in the first lesson of the *Primer*, seven are repeated in the next four lessons, seven in three of the four lessons, three in two of the four lessons, and two in one of the four lessons. Most of the nineteen words in the first lesson were also used many times in that lesson, only two not being repeated.

Besides the reading lessons in the *Primer* there are topics for free writing, dictation and imitation lessons, lesson vocabularies (lists of words without their meanings), suggested books for collateral reading, and a general Latin-English vocabulary at the end of the book. The other books contain questions in Latin on the content of each lesson to be answered in English, word lists for each lesson, and a general Latin-English vocabulary.

The first reaction of many Latin teachers to these books will be that it is impossible to teach Latin without the use of rules and paradigms. Nevertheless, the authors of these books are teaching their pupils to read Latin, if we can trust the evidence given by objective tests on comprehension (Elsie M. Smithies, "An Experiment in the Teaching of Latin." Unpublished Master's thesis, University of Chicago, 1926). In the Ullman-Kirby Latin Comprehension Test the medians of the University High School pupils were 1.9 to 3.7 points higher than those of other pupils in Chicago taught by more orthodox methods. Without any specific training in forms these pupils in the second semester had a median in the Tyler-Pressey Test in Latin Verb Forms which was 1.1 points higher than the national median.

It is to be hoped that the publication of these books will give teachers the courage to try out a bona fide reading method. The Classical Investigation showed that the majority of Latin pupils in high school were not learning to read Latin by the old methods. We cannot be sure, of course, from this one experiment in a laboratory school that a method of extensive reading of properly prepared material with no attention paid to forms and syntax will bring about reading ability. However, this method is worth a more thoroughgoing trial than has yet been given it. Results are what count, not preconceived ideas of how a language should be taught—ideas that are generally based on the method by which it was taught us in the good old days.

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